WORKING HOURS
DAY- 9:25 TO 10:15
NIGHT= 7:30 TO 12:13
JOKE BOOK

VERY DEEP, DON'T FALL IN

Thomas Griffin

79

JUNK

MAXWELL'S ENGLISH SERIES

ADVANCED LESSONS

IN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR USE IN HIGHER GRAMMAR CLASSES

BY

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For Use in Grammar Grades.

ADVANCED LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR.
For Use in Higher Grammar Classes and High Schools.

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Max. Adv. Gram.
W. P. 30

PREFACE.

Consider for a moment what grammar is. It is the most elementary part of logic. It is the beginning of the analysis of the thinking process. The principles and rules of grammar are the means by which the forms of language are made to correspond with the universal forms of thought. The distinctions between the various parts of speech, between the cases of nouns, the moods and tenses of verbs, the functions of participles, are distinctions in thought, not merely in words. Single nouns and verbs express objects and events, many of which can be cognized by the senses: but the modes of putting nouns and verbs together, express the relations of objects and events, which can be cognized only by the intellect; and each different mode corresponds to a different relation. The structure of every sentence is a lesson in logic.—*John Stuart Mill.*

In the passage quoted above, the value of grammar as a disciplinary study is fully set forth. Its practical uses, as distinguished from pure intellectual gymnastic, are to give the student practice in comprehending thought when expressed in language, and to enable him to express correctly and clearly his own experiences and thoughts. These three uses of grammar—as an intellectual discipline, as a key to unlock the meaning of sentences, and as furnishing the rules for correct expression—have been constantly kept in view in writing this book.

The name, "Advanced Lessons in English Grammar," is employed, because the work embraces all the theory and all the practice that are necessary during the last two years of a Grammar School, or throughout a High School, course. It is intended to serve two purposes: first, that of a text-book, supplying the principles and rules of the science, as well as their application in copious exercises; second, that of a book of reference, to be used whenever difficulties are presented either in the student's own compositions, or in literature that is subjected to critical study.

In the first fifty-eight pages, a bird's-eye view is given of the parts of speech and of the construction of the English sentence.

This will serve as a review of an introductory book, if such has been studied; or as an introduction to the scientific study of the subject, if such study is commenced with this volume. Grammar is divided into Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody. Each of these departments is treated separately; and the compliment is paid to the teacher of supposing that he or she knows, without explicit directions, how to use a text-book.

No apology is needed for restoring to its proper place as a department of grammar, word-formation, or derivation; and equally in accord with the demands of the best teachers is the addition of a full chapter on the history of the English language (chapter viii. of the book).

The chapter on Economy of Attention contains many things which can not be conveniently classified under any one of the four great divisions of grammar, but which every student of English should know As the title indicates, the leading idea is borrowed from Herbert Spencer's invaluable Essay on Style.

The illustrative sentences and the exercises have, for the most part, been selected or prepared specially for this work. A few, however, have been taken from standard English and German works on grammar. In this respect, as well as for many valuable suggestions, the author gratefully acknowledges his indebtedness to the grammars of Dr. Morris, Dr. Abbott, Dr. Bain, Professor Rushton, Mr. Salmon, Mr. Mason, Professor Meiklejohn, Professor Whitney, Dr. Smith, Mr. Daniel, Dr. Latham, Dr. Adams, Dr. Lowth, Dr. Morell, and to the monumental work of Maetzner; to the philological works of Professor Max Müller, Professor Whitney, Professor Earle, Professor Lounsbury, and Dr. Peile; to Dr. Currie's "English Composition"; to Dr. Hodgson's "Errors in the Use of English"; and to the etymological dictionaries of Mr. Wedgwood, Professor Skeat, and Superintendent Kennedy.

The author tenders his thanks to the friends who have done him the honor to read the proof and to make criticisms during the progress of the work. He will regard it as a special favor if those who use this book will send him suggestions leading to its improvement.

W. H. M.

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ADVANCED LESSONS
IN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

CHAPTER I.

THE SENTENCE.

1. **Language** is the name given to any means of expressing thoughts or feelings.

The most important varieties of language are *spoken language* and *written language.*

2. Spoken language and written language are made up of *words*, and words are united in *groups* called *sentences.*

Sentences are used for three purposes:

1. To **state** or **tell** something.

I am monarch of all I survey. Homer was blind.

2. To **ask** about something.

Have you ever crossed the ocean? Can you visit us to-morrow?

3. To **express a command** or **an entreaty.**

Distrust the man that flatters you. Give us this day our daily bread.

3. DEFINITION.—A **sentence** is a group of words used as a statement, a question, a command, or an entreaty.

4. A **declarative sentence** is a sentence that states or declares something.

Magellan sailed around the world.

5. An **interrogative sentence** is a sentence used to ask a question.

Can gold gain friendship?

6. An **imperative sentence** is a sentence that expresses a command or an entreaty.

Send for a physician. Pity the sorrows of a poor old man.

7. A declarative sentence may express strong feeling, such as anger, sorrow, grief, etc. The same is true of interrogative and imperative sentences. Sentences that do this are by some authors called **exclamatory sentences**. When the feeling expressed is very strong, the sentence should end with an exclamation point, but this kind of punctuation should be used as little as possible.

EXCLAMATORY DECLARATIVE SENTENCES.
The house is on fire!
What a cowardly wretch you are!
May I never see your face again!

EXCLAMATORY INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.
Wasn't the music grand?
The boy! Oh! where was he?

EXCLAMATORY IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.
Heap high the farmer's wintry hoard!
Jump far out, boy, into the wave!

8. A declarative sentence may contain a question or a command.

The gentleman said, "Is your father at home?"
The captain shouted, "Charge for the batteries!"

9. An interrogative sentence may contain a declarative or an imperative part.

Did the teacher say, "Your answer is wrong, John"?
Does not the Bible command, "Swear not at all"?

10. An imperative sentence may consist in part of a question or of a statement.

Ask yourself often, "Is my action right?"
Read more slowly, "He giveth His beloved sleep."

From the use of a sentence, however, there is no difficulty in telling the class to which it belongs.

EXERCISE 1.—*Tell the kind of sentence.*

1. Benevolence is a duty and a pleasure.
2. Hast thou a star to guide thy path?
3. Lead us to some far-off sunny isle.
4. The blackbird whistles from the thorny brake.
5. Shall we always be youthful, and laughing, and gay?
6. O, could I fly, I'd fly with thee.
7. Trust no future, howe'er pleasant.
8. O, Hamlet, thou hast cleft my heart in twain!
9. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll.
10. What flower is this that greets the morn?
11. Who wrote, "I would not live alway"?
12. "Where is my mother?" was his constant inquiry.
13. "Where are you going, my pretty maid?"
14. "I'm going a-milking, sir," she said.
15. Ask them, "Why stand ye here all the day idle?"

QUESTIONS.

What is the general name given to any means by which we express thoughts or feelings? Can you give an example of a thought about the school? About your brother? About your mother? About your reader? About a chestnut tree? About a rose? What means did you use to express these thoughts?

If I wished you to come to me, how could I make my wish known without using words? What kind of language is this?

If you saw a poor child cold and hungry, how would you feel about it? What name would you give to your feeling? Can you tell me something that would make you feel angry? Sad? Thankful? Sorry? Penitent? In what way may all these feelings be expressed?

What are the two general names that may be given to all things expressed by language?

What are the two most important varieties of language? Which of the senses is addressed by spoken language? Which by written language?

What is language composed of? What are words combined into?

What are the three purposes for which sentences are used? How are sentences classified according to their purposes?

What mark of punctuation do you place after a declarative sentence? An imperative sentence? An interrogative sentence? After a sentence that expresses strong feeling?

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

11. Every sentence must be composed of two parts, a *subject* and a *predicate.*

In defining subject and predicate, the declarative sentence is referred to, because it is the kind of sentence in most common use.

In the declarative sentence, the *subject* consists of the word or words used to denote that about which the statement is made.

The *predicate* consists of the word or words that express the statement.

***Gold** is heavy.*
***The careless boy** neglected his lesson.*

Your home on the mountain *is bleak and wild.*
The noisiest dogs *are generally the least dangerous.*

12. The subject and predicate of an interrogative sentence are easily recognized if the *question* is first put into the form of a *declarative sentence.*

Did ***you*** *see the procession yesterday?*
Has ***every pupil in the class*** *prepared his lesson?*
Whom did ***the people of New York*** *choose for governor?*

Subjects.	*Predicates.*
You	*did see the procession yesterday.*
Every pupil in the class	*has prepared his lesson.*
The people of New York	*did choose whom for governor.*

13. The *subject* of an imperative sentence is generally *thou* or *you*, usually understood, but sometimes expressed. The *predicate* consists of the words that express the command or entreaty.

You *run away to school now.*
Turn not ***thou*** *away.*

14. DEFINITION.—The **subject** of a sentence denotes that about which something is said.

15. DEFINITION.—The **predicate** of a sentence is that which is said of the thing denoted by the subject.

EXERCISE 2.—*Mention the subject and the predicate of each of the following sentences:*

1. Old events have modern meaning.
2. The lights of the village gleam through the rain and the mist.
3. The cricket and the kettle sang very well together.

4. Two hundred years have changed the character of a great continent.

5. The captain's quick eye caught one possible chance of escape.

6. How far that little candle throws its beams!

7. The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea.

8. A faint mist hung over the surface of the lake.

9. The old oaken bucket arose from the well.

10. The faithful, stout-hearted fellow carried his wounded master on his back.

11. The mocking-bird is the sweetest musician among American birds.

12. The smallest boats should always keep near the shore.

13. Can the clerk of the weather tell whether to-morrow will be warm?

14. Did the waves wash away your fine castles of sand?

15. Away down south lives a pretty, golden-haired child.

16. Did that mischievous little elf break the spider's web?

17. A tiny vase of tangled flowers stands on the table at my side.

18. In the shade of the trees the weary travelers found rest.

19. That worn old book in the corner of my shelf is one of my truest friends.

20. An unmannerly young daisy laughed at the antics of the grasshoppers.

QUESTIONS.

What do we call that part of a sentence which denotes that about which something is said? What is the other part of the sentence called? Make a declarative sentence about the subject of a sentence. Tell the subject and predicate of your sentence. Make an interrogative sentence about the predicate of a sentence. Tell the subject and predicate of the sentence. Make an imperative sentence about grammar. Tell the subject and predicate of it.

GRAMMAR.

16. Grammar tells us how words are formed, how they are classified, how they are joined to

form sentences, how sentences are classified, and the relations that both words and sentences bear one to another.

English Grammar tells all of these things with regard to the English language.

QUESTIONS.

State four things Grammar tells us about words. Mention two things Grammar tells us about sentences.

CHAPTER II.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

THE NOUN.

17. All the words in our language are arranged in classes called **parts of speech.** The *use* that is made of any particular word determines the class to which it belongs. If we examine the sentences employed in speaking and writing, we find that the different uses that can be made of words are not many.

One of the largest and most important classes of words is made up of the names of the things that we speak and write about. The words *boy, house, memory, kindness,* etc., are examples of this class. Such words are called **nouns,**—a word that means *names.*

In the following sentences the nouns are in full-faced type:

Flowers** and **ferns** grew on the **bank** of the **lake.

The ***prince*** *was clad in a* ***garment*** *of* ***velvet*** *that glistened with* ***gems.***

The next ***gale*** *that sweeps from the* ***north*** *will bring to our* ***ears*** *the* ***clash*** *of resounding* ***arms.***

The ***war*** *of the* ***Colonies*** *against* ***England*** *excited much* ***sympathy*** *in* ***Europe.***

18. DEFINITION.—A **noun** is a word used as the name of something.

QUESTIONS

What is a *part of speech?* How do we determine the class to which a word belongs? Give the names of six things in your school-room. In your home. Of six flowering plants. Of six forest trees. Of six wild birds. Of four domestic birds. Of six kinds of fish. What class-name is given to the names of the things that we thus speak and write about? Define *noun.*

THE ADJECTIVE.

19. Things that have the same name are often very different from one another, and their differences enable us to separate a particular thing from every other thing having the same name. For example, the word *apple* is the name of a class of things so much alike that we may call them all by the same name; yet it is difficult to find two that are exactly alike in every respect. They have differences in color, size, taste, etc., and these differences are denoted by such words as *red*, *yellow*, *large*, *sweet*, *smooth*, *ripe*, etc. Again, they are distinguished by words denoting their situation, number, etc.; as when we say *this apple*, *that apple*, *these apples*, *any apple*, *two apples*, *some apples*, *many apples*, *the apple*, *an apple*, etc.

A word thus used to point out more exactly the

thing we refer to, is called an **adjective**,—a word meaning *joined to.* This class of words gets its name from the fact that the adjective generally stands next to the noun to which it belongs. Thus, *good boys, luscious grapes, a girl.*

Frequently, however, it is separated from the noun to which it belongs by some other word or words.

The ***boys*** *are* ***good.*** *The* ***man*** *looked* ***sick.***

The adjectives in the following sentences are in full-faced type.

A tall, stately *lily grew beside* ***a pretty*** *bed of* ***modest little*** *violets.*

A beautiful *bird sat on* ***a lofty*** *bough, and sang* ***a melodious*** *song.*

The wise old *owl dozed in* ***an ancient*** *tower,* ***ruined*** *and* ***ivy-covered.***

20. DEFINITION.—An **adjective** is a word used to aid in denoting more exactly what is named by a noun, or the equivalent of a noun.

EXERCISE 3.—*Point out all the nouns and adjectives. Tell to what noun each adjective belongs.*

1. The thirsty, weary traveler drank of the cool, clear waters of the spring.

2. A wonderful castle, tall and grand, was built on a hill beside the beautiful Rhine.

3. People in cold countries wear garments of thick, warm fur.

4. The peddler, a lame, unshaven fellow, had a tattered blue umbrella and a basket of old newspapers and worn pamphlets.

5. On the banks of the Xenil, the dark Spanish maiden
Comes up with the fruit of the tangled vine laden.

6. On the wide lawn, the snow lay white and deep.

7. The Danish king could not repel the ocean tide.

8. The belfry tower of the Old North Church rose above the graves on the hill, lonely and spectral and somber and still.

9. Above the mists rose the snowy summits of sharp needles of rock, which seemed to float in the air, like a fairy world.

10. At the door, on summer evenings,
Sat the little Hiawatha.

QUESTIONS.

In what respects do all words classified as nouns, agree? Tell some of the respects in which the things classified under the name *orange* may differ. Under the name *house*. Under the name *horse*. Under the name *girl*. Under the name *box*. What is the general or class-name given to words that express such differences? What is the literal meaning of the word *adjective?* Why is it so called? Define *adjective*.

THE VERB.

21. With nouns and adjectives alone it is not possible to *say* any thing—that is, to make a statement, ask a question, or express a command. Thus, the expression, *The boy*, becomes a sentence only when we add some word like *studies*, *walks*, *runs*, *came*, *spoke*, *worked*. A word of this class must either be actually used, or clearly implied, in every sentence. That the verb is the most important word in language is indicated by its name, **verb**, from *verbum*, which signifies *word*.

Most of the words of this class express action of some kind.

The horse ***runs.*** *The dog* ***barks.*** *The lady* ***has gone.*** *The teacher* ***will come.*** *The boy* ***might have been detained.***

A few verbs serve simply to connect two or more words so as to form a sentence.

The poor child { *is* / *was* / *will be* / *seemed* / *looked* / *appeared* } *sick.*

The simplest form of the verb is a single word, as *strike*, *see*, *love;* but a verb is often made up of two or more words, as *did strike*, *may have seen*, *should have been loved.*

22. DEFINITION.—A **verb** is a word used to say something about some person or thing.

QUESTIONS.

Tell something an animal is. Tell something an animal does. What words in the sentences you have just made, enable you to say something about the animal? What is the class-name given to all such words? What is the literal meaning of the word *verb?* What does this indicate? What is the difference between a noun and a verb? In the sentence, *The poor child is sick*, what is the use of the verb *is?* Give some examples of verbs made up of two or more words. Define *verb.*

THE ADVERB.

23. We have seen that an adjective is joined to a noun to aid in denoting more exactly the meaning of the noun. Just as the noun *apple* is applied to a great many things that resemble one another, and differ in color, number, etc., so the verb *go* denotes action of which there are many varieties with respect to the time, manner, and place of its performance.

The men go { *slowly.* *rapidly.* *cheerfully.* *daily.* *now.* *there.* } *The car goes* { *easily.* *smoothly.* *downward.* *yonder.* *constantly.* *soon.* }

A word thus used with a verb to denote the time, place, manner, or some other characteristic of the action expressed by the verb, is called an **adverb.** The nearness of the adverb to the verb is implied in the name *adverb*, meaning *near* or *at the verb.*

24. The adverb is joined also to the adjective, generally to denote the degree or measure in which the meaning expressed by the adjective is to be understood.

The girls are { *not* *nearly* *quite* } *ready.* *James is* { *extremely* *very* *slightly* } *sick.*

25. Again, an adverb is often joined to another adverb to indicate the degree or measure of the latter's meaning.

The ship sailed ***very*** *swiftly.* *He spoke* ***somewhat*** *hopefully.*

26. The adjective and the adverb are said to *modify* the meaning of the words to which they belong; that is, they *change* or *measure* the meaning of those words.

Thus, *read* denotes a particular action; but nothing about the word shows how, or when, or where,

or under what circumstances, the act is intended. But *read slowly*, *read carefully*, *read now*, *read aloud*, are expressions in which the measure of meaning of the word *read* is diminished so as to denote an action in a particular manner, or at a particular time.

The adjective *red*, when joined to the noun *apple*, has a similar effect in lessening the extent or measure of the application of the word *apple*. The word *modify* is derived from the word *modus*, a *measure* or *boundary*, and another word meaning *to make*.

A modifier, while it thus lessens the extent of application that a word may have, adds to its exactness of meaning.

Thus, *lazy boy* and *go early* show much more exactly the *kind* of boy intended, and the *time* of performing the action expressed by *go*, than the unmodified words could show.

27. DEFINITION.—A **modifier** is a word whose meaning is used to render more exact that of another word.

NOTE.—A modifier may consist of two or more words, as will be explained hereafter.

28. DEFINITION.—An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

EXERCISE 4.—*Point out the verbs and the adverbs in the following sentences, and tell the word whose meaning each adverb modifies:*

1. The judge rode slowly down the lane.
2. The brook ripples and dances merrily on its way to the ocean.
3. The moon shone softly through the trees.
4. The lady sang very sweetly a song I had often heard in my childhood.
5. The traveler rapidly climbed the hill and soon was gazing eagerly into the beautiful valley.
6. The lark flies swiftly and soars very high.
7. Many very poor people live respectably and comfortably.
8. The ship that sailed away so gayly never came back.
9. The young hunter held his rifle carefully and shot directly upward.
10. A tiny crocus shyly peeped from her grassy home and softly whispered to the wild rose.

QUESTIONS.

Tell in single words different ways in which a person may write; walk; speak; read. What do such words generally denote with regard to the action expressed? What is the class-name applied to them? What is the literal meaning of the word *adverb?* With what other parts of speech is the adverb frequently used? Give examples. What do the adverbs in the sentences you have formed, express?

Wherein do an adjective and an adverb agree? Wherein do they differ?

In the expression, *The white horse*, is the number of animals to which the word *horse* may be applied, increased, or is it diminished, by the use of the adjective *white?* Why? In the expression, *She sings sweetly*, is the application of the verb *sings* increased or diminished by the use of the adverb *sweetly?* Why? What word do we use to denote the relation that exists between a noun and an adjective, a verb and an adverb?

What other use may a modifier have beside that of lessening the application of the word to which it is joined?

Define *modifier*. Define *adverb*.

To the Teacher.—It is not correct to say that an adverb modifies a verb. It is only partially correct to say that an adverb modifies the *meaning* of a verb. To be consistent, we should say that the *meaning* of the adverb modifies the *meaning* of the verb. This last form of expression is, however, too clumsy for general use. As far as possible, pupils should be required at least to say, that the *meaning* of a *noun*, etc., is modified by an adjective, and that of a verb, etc., by an adverb.

THE PRONOUN.

29. The four parts of speech already described include nearly all the words in our language. The remaining words make up four other classes, one of which is called the **pronoun**. The name *pronoun* denotes that this part of speech is employed as a substitute for the noun, for *pro* means *for*, or *instead of*. By using the pronoun, we are able to avoid the awkwardness of speech that would come from frequently repeating a noun. For example, without the pronoun, we could not easily avoid such sentences as,

Mary said that Mary would study Mary's lessons.
The boys promised the boys' teacher that the boys would obey the teacher's requests.

With the aid of pronouns, these sentences are much improved.

Mary said that ***she*** *would study* ***her*** *lesson.*
The boys promised ***their*** *teacher that* ***they*** *would obey* ***his*** *requests.*

Another great advantage arising from the use of the pronoun is that a single pronoun may denote a multitude of persons or things, all having different names, or even names that are not known by the speaker. Thus, the pupils in a school, or the people in a crowd on the street, may be denoted by such pronouns as *you*, *your*, *they*, *their*, *them*, *all*, *these*, *I*, *we*, *who*, *whom*, *which*, *it*, etc.

Have ***all*** *finished* ***their*** *examples?*
These *are citizens, but* ***those*** *are soldiers.*

30. DEFINITION.—A **pronoun** is a word that denotes persons or things without naming them.

EXERCISE 5.—*Fill the blanks with pronouns, and then make a list of the pronouns.*

1. The fishers dropped —— lines in the lazy tide.

2. Speak clearly if —— speak at all;
   Carve every word before —— let it fall.—*Holmes.*

3. When Europeans first explored North America —— found —— occupied by roving tribes of men —— looked very unlike ——.

4. —— rejoice to see the morning sun send —— beams through —— window.

5. The longer —— live, the more rapidly —— years seem to pass.

6. —— are blest —— lives are peaceful.

7. The falcon's bill has a deep notch in ——; —— helps —— in tearing —— food in pieces.

8. Then the little Hiawatha
   Learned of every bird —— language,
   Learned —— names and all —— secrets.

9. The boy put —— hat here, and —— hat there; but why —— placed —— so, —— do not know.

10. Every man should think that —— is responsible for —— own actions.

QUESTIONS.

What are the two principal uses of the *pronoun?* What is the literal meaning of the word? Define *pronoun.*

THE PREPOSITION.

31. If the words that make up a sentence be disarranged, that is, if their relations to one another be destroyed, we get a meaningless result.

Thus, the following words express no thought:

The room window entered thė open an burglar through.

But if they are arranged so as to be properly *related to one another*, we have a sentence.

The burglar entered the room through an open window.

There is a class of words whose use is to connect and bring into relation two unrelated words, one of which is a noun or a pronoun. A word of this kind is called a **preposition**, so named because it is derived from two Latin words meaning *placed before.*

Speak { ***to*** / ***about*** / ***with*** / ***against*** / ***for*** } *Charles.* *A castle* { ***in*** / ***by*** / ***over*** / ***upon*** / ***under*** } the *sea.*

32. The preposition and its accompanying noun or pronoun, either with or without modifying words, form what is called a **phrase.** A phrase so formed is called a **prepositional phrase**, to distinguish it from other kinds of phrases of which we shall learn hereafter.

The canoe floatea ***down the river.*** *He sat* ***within*** *a small, cheerless, unfurnished* ***room.***

The noun or pronoun following a preposition is called the **object** of the preposition; and the preposition is said to connect the object with some word that usually precedes the preposition.

Thus, in the foregoing sentences, *river* is the object of the preposition *down;* and *down* connects *floated* and *river.*

The function or use of the prepositional phrase is

1. **To modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun,** as is done by the adjective.

He is a boy ***of courage*** *= He is a* ***courageous*** *boy.*

2. **To modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb,** as is done by the adverb.

He acted ***with promptness*** *= He acted* ***promptly.***

The prepositional phrase is called an *adjective phrase modifier* when it is used like an adjective, and when it does the work of an adverb, it is an *adverbial phrase*, or *adverbial phrase modifier.*

33. DEFINITION.—A **preposition** is a word used with a noun or its equivalent, so as to form an adjective modifier, or an adverbial modifier.

EXERCISE 6.—*Fill the blanks with prepositions from the following list, that will bring the words into relation.*

at	up	upon	above	about	beyond
by	down	into	below	after	across
on	with	under	beside	before	between
of	within	near	beneath	until	against
for	over	amid	among	around	through
from	past	aboard	opposite	during	concerning

1. dropped —— the clouds.
2. waited —— the station.
3. waited —— the train.
4. watched —— my bedside.
5. knelt —— the rug.
6. a field —— the house.
7. diameter —— a circle.
8. a dream —— home.
9. ill —— fever.
10. traveled —— the continent.

11. quarrels —— friends
12. ladder —— the barn.
13. nest —— the branches.
14. asleep —— the sermon.
15. friends —— the seas.
16. life —— the grave.
17. house —— the corner.
18. wrecked —— the coast.
19. walk —— breakfast.
20. degrees —— zero.
21. work —— sundown.
22. went —— his business.
23. dived —— the waves.
24. errands —— the poor.
25. letter —— a cousin.
26. soar —— the clouds.

EXERCISE 7.—*Fill the blanks with prepositions from the foregoing list, that will connect the words and bring them into relation:*

1. Heaven hides —— all creatures the book —— fate.
2. Ten vessels came —— port —— the storm.
3. The boys live —— home —— their parents.
4. Henry found his ball —— a bench which stood —— the old oak.
5. The storms —— a century have whistled —— the branches —— this famous tree.
6. The travelers went —— the ocean, —— the burning sands —— the desert, —— high mountains and —— deep valleys, and returned home —— many months —— sight-seeing.
7. The boat went —— the tide, but —— the wind.
8. The farmers hide the kernels —— corn —— the cool, damp earth.
9. As we walked —— the meadow we heard the bleating —— the flocks —— the hill.
10. Every moment that flies —— our heads takes —— the future and gives —— the past.
11. Our canoe touched —— the shore, —— a short distance —— the spot where our friends were standing.
12. The children went out —— the shower to gather flowers —— the hillside.
13. Clouds gather —— the storm, but sunshine follows —— it.
14. I shot an arrow —— the air.
15. The traveler told us —— his thrilling adventure —— a lion.

QUESTIONS.

What is the result if the words of a sentence are disarranged? What is the class-name given to the words that are used to bring into relation two unrelated words? What else do prepositions do? Why is a preposition so called? What is a prepositional phrase composed of? What is the noun or pronoun following a preposition called? What parts of speech may be modified by phrases? Give instances. Define *preposition*.

THE CONJUNCTION.

34. Another class of connecting words is the **conjunction**,—a word that means *joining together*. The preposition, as we have seen, connects *words*, and brings them into relation. The conjunction generally connects *sentences* and brings them into relation.

The mountains look blue { ***and*** / ***because*** / ***if*** / ***therefore*** } *they are far away.*

35. Although the principal office of conjunctions is to connect sentences, yet some of them, especially *and*, are sometimes used to connect *words*.

*They are brother **and** sister.*
*The lady wore a black **and** white dress.*

36. Unlike the preposition, the conjunction can not be used as the introductory word in an adjective or adverbial phrase. This is the test by which the preposition may always be distinguished from the conjunction.

37. In uniting two or more sentences by means of conjunctions, there is often a great saving of words. The resulting sentence, however, may always be separated into those from which it was derived.

My cousin fished and swam in the lake on Saturday.

This sentence consists of two sentences, united and shortened:

My cousin fished in the lake on Saturday.
My cousin swam in the lake on Saturday.

38. When the conjunction is used to connect *words* in a sentence, the sentence can not be decomposed in the way shown above.

Thus, take the sentence, *The human body consists principally of blood, flesh,* ***and*** *bone.* This is not equivalent to

The human body consists principally of blood.
The human body consists principally of flesh.
The human body consists principally of bone.

39. Conjunctions often occur in pairs, and sometimes the first of a pair is used not to *connect*, but to *introduce.*

Though *he were a giant,* ***yet*** *I should not fear him.*
He is ***neither*** *honest* ***nor*** *truthful.*
He is ***either*** *sick* ***or*** *very tired.*

40. DEFINITION.—A **conjunction** is a word used to connect words or sentences.

EXERCISE 8.—*From the following list select suitable conjunctions to fill the blanks:*

and	nor	that	except	therefore
but	so	unless	although	nevertheless
for	if	whether	hence	notwithstanding
or	else	either	because	in order that
yet	than	neither	however	so that

1. He was punished —— he was guilty.
2. He was pardoned —— he was guilty.
3. I would pay you —— I had the money.
4. We can not go —— we finish our task.
5. He can not cross the river —— the water is shallow.
6. The man came, —— he did not stay long.
7. The poor man gave more —— the rich man.
8. —— the rain came down in torrents, we started on our journey.
9. I will trust him, —— he deceived me before.
10. The lady could —— dance —— sing, —— she played beautifully.
11. Everybody believed him, —— he must have been truthful.
12. We must —— go at once, —— stay at home all day.
13. I will lend you the money, —— you seem to need it so badly.
14. I have not decided —— I shall walk —— ride.
15. The children played outside while the day was fine, —— came into the house as soon as it began to rain.

EXERCISE 9.—*Make one sentence of each pair of sentences by using conjunctions selected from the foregoing list:*

EXAMPLE.—The boy robbed the nest.
He was punished for his cruelty.

The boy robbed the nest and was punished for his cruelty.

1. His daughter was the light of his eyes.
   His daughter was the joy of his soul.

2. The messenger mounted the stairs quickly.
   The stairs were very steep.

3. Roses love the sunshine.
   They do not love the shade.

4. Time waits for no man.
   Tide waits for no man.

5. The teacher reproved the pupil.
   The pupil failed in recitation.

6. She talks more than she thinks.
   She talks but little.

7. You will take cold.
   You are not properly clothed.

8. Our guest will depart.
   The storm is still raging.

9. I could not weep.
   I could not laugh.

10. He paid me promptly.
    I trusted him again.

QUESTIONS.

Wherein do the words classed as prepositions and the words classed as conjunctions, agree? Wherein do they differ? What is the principal office of conjunctions? What else do they do? Mention some conjunctions that serve to connect words. Some that occur in pairs. Make sentences containing *neither—nor*, *either—or*, *both—and*.

THE INTERJECTION.

41. The seven classes of words thus far explained have each a particular office or function in the sentence. We are able to determine the part of speech to which any particular word in a sentence

belongs only by learning how it stands related to other words in the sentence.

There is, however, a class of words called the **interjection**, or *exclamation*, that has no grammatical relation to other words in the sentence where it occurs. Interjections do not aid in the expression of *thought*, but indicate *emotion* or *feeling*, and serve no other purpose than to show by what kind and degree of feeling our thought is accompanied.

Alas! *My boy is dead.*
Hurrah! *We have a holiday.*
Oh! *Excuse my awkwardness.*

The words *alas*, *hurrah*, and *oh*, in the preceding sentences, are called *interjections*,—a name that means *something thrown in among other things*. The name implies that the interjection is not necessary to the grammatical completeness of a sentence.

Words commonly used as verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc., are sometimes employed as interjections.

Good! *That ball was well caught.*
Hush! *You will scare the birds.*
"If"! *What do you mean by "if"?*
Well! *Have you solved the example at last?*
Now! *Are you not ashamed of yourself?*

42. DEFINITION.—An **interjection** is a word expressing strong feeling, and not related to other words in the sentence.

EXERCISE 10.—*From the following list select suitable interjections to fill the blanks:*

Oh!	Come!	Well!	Hey!	Nonsense!
Ah!	Stop!	Hurrah!	There!	Dear me!
Lo!	Alas!	Hark!	Shame!	Good-bye!
So!	Help!	Hem!	Indeed!	Ha, ha!
Fie!	Fire!	Hist!	Begone!	Farewell!
How!	Look!	Hush!	Look out!	Ah me!
Why!	Bang!	Behold!	Beware!	O dear!
See!	Hallo!	Huzza!	Welcome!	Heigh-ho!

1. ——! I am surprised to hear it.
2. ——! Here comes the train.
3. I shall not see you again. ——!
4. ——! You can not make me believe that.
5. ——! He is deceiving you.
6. ——! It was a very funny sight.
7. ——! Is anybody awake within?
8. ——! cried Samoset to the white men.
9. ——! ——! cried the traveler, as the robbers fell upon him.
10. ——! I knew I could do it.
11. ——! Did you hear that strange sound?
12. ——! I do not understand you.
13. ——! The clouds are breaking away.
14. The maiden wrung her hands and cried, ——! and ——!
15. ——! Let me never see you again.
16. ——! ——! A victory!
17. ——! My blood runs cold!
18. The captain said ——! and ——! went the guns.
19. ——! that thou shouldst die.
20. ——! Do not awake the child.

NOTE.—It is well to avoid the use of interjections as much as possible, both in speaking and in writing, particularly those used to express the feeling of contempt or dislike; such as, *fudge! bosh! pshaw! bah!*

QUESTIONS.

How do you determine the part of speech to which any particular word in a sentence belongs? Of the eight parts of speech, how many are used for the expression of thought? How many solely for the expression of feeling? What is it called? How may a verb be used as an interjection? A noun? An adjective? An adverb? Give an instance of each. Define *interjection*.

CHAPTER III

ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

43. We have seen that a sentence consists of two principal parts:

1. The **subject**,—the word or words denoting that about which something is said.

2. The **predicate**,—expressing what is said of the thing denoted by the subject.

Sometimes the subject consists of a noun only, as ***Time*** *flies;* sometimes of a pronoun, as ***He*** *walks,* ***She*** *rides;* sometimes, of a noun or pronoun with one or more adjective modifiers, as,

The swift boat *scuds before the breeze.*

Friendless, homeless, hopeless, they *wandered from city to city.*

Without its modifiers, the noun or pronoun that denotes that of which something is said is called the *subject noun*, or the *subject pronoun*, and the verb in the predicate is called the *predicate verb*

44. The subject often consists of two or more words equivalent in meaning to a noun; as,

***To err** is human. **Walking in the hot sun** is weary work.*

In these sentences, *to err*, and *walking in the hot sun*, are called phrases; and because they perform the offices of nouns, they are called *noun phrases.*

45. Sometimes the subject of a sentence is an expression containing itself a subject and a predicate; as,

***Why he came to see us,** soon became evident.*

An expression used in this way, as the subject of a sentence, is called a *noun clause.*

***That he committed the crime,** was clearly shown at the trial.*

Phrases and clauses serve for other purposes beside those mentioned above, as will be shown hereafter.

EXERCISE 11.—*In the following sentences, point out the subject and the predicate, and tell whether the subject is a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, or a clause:*

1. Long among them waited a maiden.
2. I stood on the bridge at midnight.
3. Written their history stands on tablets of stone.
4. To make others happy should be our chief delight.
5. That the earth is round has been proven.
6. By the pale moonlight is the time to view fair Melrose.
7. Listening to sweet music brings rest to the weary mind.
8. Whatever hath been written shall remain.
9. Charity suffereth long and is kind, is the law of love.
10. To love poetry is the mark of a refined mind.

THE COMPLEMENT OF A VERB.

46. If we should construct a variety of sentences by joining subjects to suitable verbs, it would soon appear that verbs differ in two important respects. We should find that,

47. 1. Some verbs are capable of forming the predicate of a sentence without the aid of any other word. Such are called **verbs of complete predication.**

The boy { ***runs.*** ***walks.*** ***thinks.*** *The bird* { ***sings.*** ***flies.*** ***eats.***

48. 2. Some verbs are incapable of forming a complete predicate without the aid of one or more additional words. Such are called **verbs of incomplete predication.** That which is added to the verb to fill out its meaning is called its **complement,**—a word meaning *that which fills or completes.*

The dog { *caught* ***the fox.*** *bit* ***the boy.*** *scared* ***the burglar.*** *The man* { *is* ***a gentleman.*** *seems* ***sick.*** *looks* ***tired.***

Verbs of incomplete predication are of two kinds.

49. 1. Verbs whose complement is either an *adjective* modifying the subject, or a *noun* or *pronoun* denoting the same person or thing as the subject.

We are ***tired.*** *They were* ***late.*** *I feel* ***bad.*** *It was* ***I.*** *Maud was* ***a teacher.*** *He became* ***President.***

An adjective so used is called the **predicate adjective.**

The noun or pronoun that completes the predicate in the way explained above is called the **predicate noun** or **predicate pronoun.**

50. 2. Verbs whose complement is a noun or a pronoun denoting that which receives the action expressed by the verb.

*He sawed **wood.** We caught **fish.** The sun lights the **earth.** The storm wrecked a **steamer.** We assisted **him.***

51. A noun or pronoun used in this manner is called the **object** of the verb. The noun or pronoun taken without any modifiers is called the object noun or the object pronoun.

52. The complement of a verb may be a phrase or a clause.

*He is **with his sister.** The teacher said **that the earth is round.** They explained **how the accident happened.***

EXERCISE 12.—*In the following sentences, point out*

1. *The subject and predicate.*
2. *The predicate nouns and predicate adjectives.*
3. *All objects of verbs and of prepositions.*
4. *All clauses used as subject or as object.*

1. I hear the shouts of the school-boys.
2. The old orchard gave forth the first faint scent of the apple-blooms.
3. A bobolink and a robin sang a sweet duet.
4. Fame is the fragrance of heroic deeds.

5. The soldier lay lifeless but beautiful.

6. We heard the bleating of the flock,
And the twitter of birds among the trees.

7. Men will judge us by the company we keep.

8. The laws of Nature are just, but pitiless.

9. God sent His singers upon earth
With songs of sadness and of mirth.

10. Washington is the Father of his Country.

11. King Alfred was a sublime character.

12. I shot an arrow into the air.

13. The day is cold and dark and dreary.

14. Windsor Castle is the residence of Queen Victoria.

15. Hiawatha learned the names and the secrets of many birds.

16. Straws show which way the wind blows.

17. We believed that the ring was stolen.

18. I remember how my childhood fleeted by.

19. The sailor thought he saw a light.

20. History teaches that the Civil War was a critical event in the existence of this nation.

QUESTIONS.

What is a sentence? What are the two principal parts of a sentence? What part of speech must the predicate contain? Why?

What parts of speech may the principal word in the subject be? Make a sentence with a noun as the subject. With a pronoun as the subject.

What collections of words may take the place of a noun or a pronoun in the subject? Give an example of a noun phrase. Of a noun clause.

What is the quality that all verbs have in common? What are the two respects in which verbs differ?

What is the meaning of the word *complement?* What are the two kinds of complements of verbs? What are the marks by which you may distinguish them?

What relation does a predicate noun, pronoun, or adjective, bear to the subject noun or pronoun?

What relation does the object noun or pronoun bear to the predicate verb?

What else may constitute the complement of a verb besides a noun or pronoun?

ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS.

53. We have seen that an adjective joined to a noun, to denote more exactly what the noun names, is called a *modifier*. It has been explained also that precisely the same work done in a sentence by an adjective may be done by two or more words taken together and used as the equivalent of an adjective.

***Honest** boys, boys **of honesty**, boys **that are honest**.*
***Blue-eyed** girl, girl **with blue eyes**, girl **who has blue eyes**.*

The expressions in full-faced type are all *adjective modifiers*.

Adjective modifiers are, therefore, of three kinds with respect to *form*.

54. 1. A **word**.

***Red** roses, **pine** trees, **three** days, **silk** hat, **large** apples.*

55. 2. A **phrase**. Any modifier that consists of several words is called a *phrase modifier*, provided it contains *no word that asserts*. The most important phrase modifiers are those that begin with a preposition and end with a noun or a pronoun. To distinguish them from phrases of other kinds of which we shall learn hereafter, they are called prepositional phrases. If used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun, they are *prepositional adjective phrases*.

*The girl **with golden hair** is my sister.*
*She wore a dress **of many colors**.*

The boy	*with his father.*	*The grapes*	*at the market.*
	in the boat.		*for him.*
	on the horse.		*along the fence.*
	by the road.		*upon the vine.*
	under the bridge.		*against the wall.*

56. 3. A clause.

I know a girl who has blue eyes.

Here the noun *girl* is modified by *who has blue eyes.* This modifier contains the predicate verb *has,* and in this respect differs from the phrase, which contains no asserting word. A modifier in this form is called a *clause.*

The house that Jack built stands in a region where rain never falls.

The nouns *house* and *region* are modified by the adjective clauses *that Jack built,* and *where rain never falls,* respectively.

EXERCISE 13.—*Point out all the adjective modifiers, and tell what words they modify. Tell also which are phrases; and which, clauses.*

1. A gentleman of great learning addressed the pupils of the first class.
2. The travelers visited the house in which Shakespeare lived.
3. Children that live in the country welcome the birds of early spring.
4. Pennsylvania contains many varieties of forest trees.
5. The book that I loaned you has not been returned.
6. The lady who visited us wore diamonds of remarkable brilliance.

7. The people that come late must take the back seats.

8. The man from whom we buy provisions is a dealer in fine goods.

9. The gardener plucked large bunches of luscious purple grapes.

10. The children of the slaves sang the songs of David.

11. He that would thrive must see the white sparrow.

12. I remember the rock where the cataract fell.

13. Cromwell defeated the army of the king.

14. The sweetest music that a mother hears is the prattle of her little children.

15. The moon, that once was round and full,
Is now a silver boat.

16. The roses that adorned the garden are now withered and dead.

17. Bright flowers deck the meadow where the cattle graze.

18. I heard from the boughs the sweet notes of a nightingale.

19. The factory where the brothers worked was burned.

20. I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows.

ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS.

57. If a *word* is used to modify the meaning of a *verb*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*, we know the word to be an *adverb*. A *phrase* used for the same purpose becomes an **adverbial phrase**, and a clause so used becomes an **adverbial clause.**

The boy walked { ***into the yard.*** / ***over the hill.*** / ***through the woods.***

The foregoing phrases modify the verb *walked*, and are, therefore, *adverbial phrases.*

We left the city { *as the night came.* / *when we had finished our work.* / *before the ship sailed.*

The verb *left* is modified by the clauses on the right, which are, in consequence, *adverbial clauses.*

A phrase or a clause may itself be modified by an adverb.

Nearly across the ocean.
Exactly where Columbus landed.
Just before the battle.

58. DEFINITION.—A **phrase** is a group of words not containing a subject and predicate, which performs the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb in a sentence.

59. DEFINITION.—A **clause** is a group of words containing a subject and predicate, which performs the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, in a sentence.

EXERCISE 14.—*Tell which modifiers are adverbs, which are adverbial phrases, and which are adverbial clauses. Tell also what each modifies.*

1. I will come when I have finished my lesson.
2. Smooth is the water where the brook is deep.
3. He had a fever when he was in Spain.
4. Some must watch while some must sleep.
5. We stood upon the ragged rocks
   When the long day was nearly done.
6. When the shadows of evening fall, the sunbeams fly away.
7. Far above the organ's swell rang out a childish voice.
8. The little birds chirped as they opened their drowsy eyes.

9. The swan sings before it dies.
10. The sun rises in the east and sets in the west.
11. My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky.
12. Make hay while the sun shines.
13. An honest man speaks as he thinks.
14. We walked along the path toward the station.
15. With a quick motion, the deer lifted his head a little, and turned his ear to the south.

QUESTIONS.

What is the office of a word used as a modifier? What part of speech is used as a modifier of a noun or pronoun?

What collections of words may take the place of an adjective? Make a sentence containing an adjective phrase. An adjective clause.

What part of speech is used as a modifier of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb? Give examples.

What collections of words may be used to perform the office of an adverb?

Of what parts of speech may a phrase perform the offices? What is it called in each instance?

Of what parts of speech may a clause perform the offices? What is it called in each instance?

Enumerate and illustrate the various words and collections of words that may form the subject of a sentence. The complement of a verb.

Define *phrase*. Define *clause*.

CHAPTER IV.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS.

60. There are two methods by which one might make himself acquainted with any thing made up of related parts; as, for example, a watch.

He might take the watch apart, piece by piece, and while doing so, study the details of its structure and

the relation of its parts one to another. An operation like this, which begins with the whole and descends to the parts that compose the whole, is called **analysis.** The word means *a taking apart* or *separating.*

Or he might begin with the parts, and, after some experiment and study, get an excellent knowledge of the watch by putting its parts properly together. An operation of this kind is called **synthesis,** which means *a putting together.*

These two methods are the reverse of each other, and both are applicable to the study of the sentence. Both enable us to understand how words are related to one another and to the whole sentence.

61. DEFINITION.—**Analysis** in grammar is the process of separating a sentence into parts, according to their use.

62. DEFINITION.—**Synthesis** in grammar is the process of constructing sentences whose parts are given, their use being known or stated.

QUESTIONS.

How many ways are there of studying any thing made up of parts?

If you separated a chair into its parts, discovering how one part was related to another and to the whole, what would this method of study be called?

If you were given the parts of a chair, and were required to put them together so as to form a complete piece of furniture, what might this operation be called?

Tell what you would have to do to become acquainted, by analysis, with the construction of a violin. By synthesis.

Invent an illustration of analysis. Of synthesis.

What is the object of both analysis and synthesis in grammar? Define *analysis.* Define *synthesis.*

SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES.

63. We have already seen that, when considered with respect to the use that is made of them, sentences are of three kinds: *declarative*, when used to make a statement; *interrogative*, when used to ask a question; *imperative*, when used to express a command or entreaty.

64. But sentences may be classified with reference to their structure; that is, by considering their parts or elements.

Sentences have great variety of structure, but they may all be divided into three great classes: the **simple sentence**, the **complex sentence**, and the **compound sentence.**

I. The Simple Sentence.

65. The simplest form a sentence can have is that in which a subject noun or pronoun is joined to a suitable verb, or to a verb and its object, so as to form a statement, a question, or a command.

*Birds **fly**.*
*The dog **barks**.*
*He **walks**.*
*I **have read** the book.*
*Mary **ate** the apple.*
*The sun **lights** the earth.*

66. Such sentences may be lengthened by the addition of modifiers; but so long as these modifiers are *words* or *phrases*, and not *clauses*, the sentences are still simple sentences.

*Pluck **the ripe, yellow** apples **from the old tree**.*
*Did **the wolf in the fable** eat **the gentle little lamb**?*

EXERCISE 15.—*As in the model, lengthen the following sentences by properly adding to them the given modifiers:*

Sentence.	*Word Modifiers.*	*Phrase Modifiers.*
1. *Birds* ***fly***	*many* *wonderful* *every-where*	*among the stately trees* *in South America* *along the Amazon River*

Along the Amazon River, in South America, many wonderful ***birds fly*** *every-where among the stately trees.*

2. *Flowers* ***bloom*** { *the, often* / *sweetest* } { *of the forest* / *in the loneliest nooks* }

3. *Girl* ***sat*** { *very* / *silent* / *the* / *little* } *in a pretty crimson chair* / *near the window*

4. *Children* ***skated*** { *many* / *happy* / *swiftly* } *over the clear ice* / *near the village*

5. *Sled* ***shot*** { *the* / *new* } { *on the steel runners* / *down the hill* / *with great speed* }

6. *Parents* ***tracked*** *footsteps* { *the* / *frantic* / *the* / *small* } *of the lost child* / *across an open field* / *into the forest*

7. *General* ***must be*** { *a* / *trusty* / *faithful* / *and dutiful* } *of an army*

8. *Maid* ***gave*** *flowers* { *a* / *little* / *the* / *beautiful* } *with downcast eyes* / *to the teacher*

9. *Sparrow* ***makes*** *home* { *the, small, brown, English, readily, its* } { *in the trees, of our streets* }

10. *Nest* ***swings*** { *the, snow-filled, lonely, drearily* } *upon the leafless tree*

67. By means of conjunctions, two or more simple sentences may often be contracted, or shortened, into one simple sentence that has,

1. A compound subject. In making such contractions, changes in the forms of some of the words are often necessary.

Leah went to the sea-side.
Leah's mother went to the sea-side. } =
Leah *and* ***her mother*** *went to the sea-side.*

2. A compound object.

The child gathered shells along the sea-shore.
The child gathered pebbles along the sea-shore. } =
The child gathered ***shells*** *and* ***pebbles*** *along the sea-shore.*

3. A compound predicate.

The sun lights the earth.
The sun warms the earth. } =
The sun ***lights*** *and* ***warms*** *the earth.*

The children are young.
The children are happy. } =
The children are ***young*** *and* ***happy.***

4. **Two or more of the foregoing elements compound.**

Mary gathered violets. Mary gathered buttercups.
Mary pressed violets. Mary pressed buttercups.
Lily gathered violets. Lily gathered buttercups.
Lily pressed violets. Lily pressed buttercups. } =
Mary and Lily gathered and pressed violets and buttercups.

5. **Any other compound elements.**

The teacher spoke firmly.
The teacher spoke pleasantly. } =
The teacher spoke firmly but pleasantly.

Henry was respectful to his teacher.
Henry was obedient to his parents. } =
Henry was respectful to his teacher and obedient to his parents.

A simple sentence that is formed by the synthesis of two or more simple sentences contains such conjunctions as *and*, *but*, *as well as*, *either—or*, *neither—nor*, *both—and*, etc.

*Night is pleasant, **as well as** day.*
*Life is short **but** very precious.*
***Both** his money **and** his good name are lost.*
***Neither** his father **nor** his mother was living.*

68. DEFINITION.—A **simple sentence** is a sentence containing one subject and one predicate, either of which may be compound.

NOTE.—Great care should be taken that, when a sentence is written, the proper marks of punctuation are inserted. For the rules governing punctuation, see pages 270–78.

EXERCISE 16.—*Contract each set of sentences into one simple sentence:*

1. Fine roses are found in Japan.
   Fine roses are found in China.
   Many beautiful lilies are found in Japan.
   Many beautiful lilies are found in China.

2. The high wind blew down trees.
   The high wind carried away fences.
   The high wind did much damage to property.

3. No sound was heard during the long night.
   The barking of the dogs was heard during the long night.

4. The city of Vancouver has only six thousand inhabitants.
   The city of Vancouver has much traffic.
   The city of Vancouver has much wealth.

5. The buttercup comes early in the spring.
   The buttercup stays late in the fall.
   The daisy comes early in the spring.
   The daisy stays late in the fall.

6. He spoke of the grass.
   He spoke of the flowers.
   He spoke of the trees.
   He spoke of the singing birds.
   He spoke of the humming bees.

7. John is a citizen of New York State.
   I am a citizen of New York State.

8. I care not much for gold.
   I care not much for land.

9. Her cheek was glowing fresh.
   Her cheek was glowing fair.
   Her cheek was glowing with the breath of morn.
   Her cheek was glowing with the soft sea air.

10. Pride goeth forth on horseback, grand and gay.
    Pride cometh back on foot.
    Pride begs its way.

QUESTIONS.

Define *sentence*.

What are the two plans upon which classifications of sentences are made?

How are sentences classified according to the use that is made of them? Define each kind or class.

What is meant by saying that sentences are classified according to structure? How are they so classified?

What is the simplest form of a sentence? How may such sentences be lengthened?

What part of speech is used in contracting two or more simple sentences into one?

Give an example of a sentence with a compound subject. With a compound object. With a compound predicate. With both subject and predicate compound. With a compound predicate complement.

II. The Complex Sentence.

69. We have seen that a clause may be used as a modifier.

1. A clause may, like an adjective, modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.

This is the house ***that my father built.***
We visited the city ***where Columbus was born.***

Here *that my father built* modifies the noun *house*, and *where Columbus was born* modifies the noun *city*. The words *that* and *where* are used to connect the clauses between which they stand.

2. A clause may perform the office of an adverb.

The birds returned ***when spring came.***
The concert had begun ***before we arrived.***

70. Of the two connected clauses in each of the foregoing sentences, one has a more important rank

than the other. Thus, in the sentence, *The birds returned when spring came*, the clause *when spring came* is said to be **dependent** or **subordinate**, because it is a mere modifier of the verb *returned*. *The birds returned* is called the **leading** or **principal** clause.

71. A sentence that contains one principal clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clauses is a **complex sentence.**

72. Besides its use as a modifier, the subordinate clause may be used like a noun in the complex sentence.

1. As the **subject** of the *principal clause.*

***What he said** amused the children.*
***That he was guilty** seemed almost certain.*

2. As the **object** of the *verb* in the *principal clause.*

*Can you explain **what you mean?***
*I can not say **when I shall return.***

3. As the **object** of a *preposition.*

*My course will be determined by **what he says.***

73. DEFINITION.—A **complex sentence** is a sentence that contains one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

74. The principal connectives that join an adjective clause to a noun or a pronoun, are the pronouns

who, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *that*, and the adverbs *where* and *when*.

The principal connectives that join an adverbial clause to a verb or an adjective are the adverbs *where*, *when*, *while*.

The adverbs mentioned above are often called *conjunctive adverbs*, because they not only modify the verbs in the clauses they introduce, but also connect these clauses with some word in the principal clause.

EXERCISE 17.—*By means of suitable connectives form a complex sentence out of each set of simple sentences, making necessary contractions:*

1. { Our children always retire for the night.
   { The clock strikes nine.

2. { The snow remains unmelted longest.
   { The drifts are deepest.

3. { The teacher detained her pupils.
   { They had failed in their lessons.
   { They had been disorderly.

4. { We sat on the shore at the sea-side.
   { The sun sank below the hills.
   { The stars began to shine brightly.

5. { A boy became Lord Mayor of London.
   { The boy was called Dick Whittington.

6. { The farmer carefully locked the stable-door.
   { His horse had already been stolen.
   { He valued the horse very highly.

7. { Harry's mother gave him a beautiful pony.
   { Harry was ten years old.
   { The pony came from Texas.

8. { The whale is not really a fish.
It is eagerly hunted in the Arctic Ocean.
Its body yields oil and whalebone.

9. { The waters of the Gulf Stream grow cooler.
The Gulf Stream flows northward.

10. { Tennyson lives on the Isle of Wight.
He wrote the beautiful "Idyls of the King."
He wrote them many years ago.

11. { We see the lightning.
We hear the thunder.
We may expect rain.

12. { The fleeing troops of Sheridan rallied at Winchester.
He had ridden twenty miles to join them

13. { Whittier saw many things in nature.
Other people could not see them.
He was a poet.

14. { George Washington was the first President of the United States.
He was inaugurated April 30, 1789.

15. { Benjamin Franklin discovered electricity.
Benjamin Franklin invented the lightning-rod.
Benjamin Franklin was a statesman.
Benjamin Franklin was a patriot.

QUESTIONS.

What are the three offices which a clause may perform in a sentence? When is one sentence said to be subordinate to another, or dependent on it?

Give an illustration of a clause used as an adjective. As an adverb. As a noun: when it is the subject of a sentence; when it is the object of a verb; when it is the object of a preposition.

Point out the principal clause, the subordinate clause, and the connective, in each of the illustrative sentences in paragraph 72.

Define *complex sentence*.

Point out the principal clause, the subordinate clause, and the connective in each sentence you make in Exercise 17, and tell whether the subordinate clause is a noun, an adjective, or an adverbial clause.

III. The Compound Sentence.

75. Two simple sentences may be united so that one of them is of higher rank or importance than the other. This, as we have seen, forms a **complex** sentence.

76. Again, two or more principal clauses, with or without subordinate clauses, may be found in a sentence. Such a sentence is called a **compound** sentence.

Art is long and time is fleeting.

The sun had set, but the moon was shining brightly.

Either he himself committed the crime, or he knows who the culprits are.

77. A compound sentence must have at least two principal or independent clauses. Either or all of these clauses may have dependent clauses as modifiers, or as objects of verbs or prepositions.

When the tide turns ***the anchor will be raised*** *and* ***the vessel will take its departure.***

Whittier lives at Amesbury, near the beautiful Merrimac *that* ***he loved in his youth, and he will probably remain there*** *until he dies.*

78. Definition.—A **compound sentence** is a sentence containing two or more principal or independent clauses.

Exercise 18.—*Form compound sentences of the following sets of simple sentences, and tell which clauses are principal, and which subordinate.*

1. { The rain descended.
   { The floods came.
   { The winds blew.

2. The frost killed the leaves.
The rain loosened their hold upon the boughs.
They floated silently to the earth.
The snow covered them with its white mantle.

3. His fevered brow grew cool again.
He breathed a blessing on the rain.

4. It was the month of November.
The sun shone warm and bright.

5. The door was softly opened.
A little girl peeped in.
She quickly ran away again.

6. The night grows dark.
Thick drops patter on the pane.

7. The men could not go sailing.
A storm had arisen.

8. A soft answer turneth away wrath.
Grievous words stir up anger.

9. Master books.
Do not let books master you.

10. The cork-tree grows to a height of forty feet.
Its trunk is from two to three feet in diameter.

11. There was a strange look in his eyes.
He was very merry.

12. Conceit may puff a man up.
It will never prop him up.

QUESTIONS.

Wherein do a complex sentence and a compound sentence agree? Wherein do they differ?

What is the smallest number of principal clauses you may have in a compound sentence?

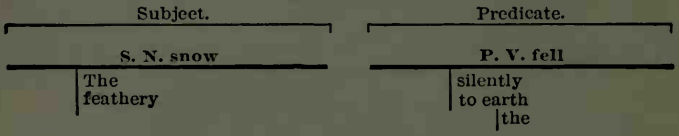
May you have a subordinate clause in a compound sentence? Under what conditions? Point out the subordinate clauses in the illustrative sentences in section 77.

Define *compound sentence.*

ANALYSIS OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

79. Sentences may be analyzed by means of diagrams so as to show the functions of words, phrases, and clauses, and their relations one to another. Diagrams, however, are not essential to analysis. An analysis, such as the explanation printed below, is sufficient.

The feathery snow fell silently to the earth.



EXPLANATION.—It is a ***declarative sentence,*** because it expresses a statement.

It is a ***simple sentence,*** because it contains one subject and one predicate.

The ***subject*** is *The feathery snow.*

The ***predicate*** is *fell silently to the earth.*

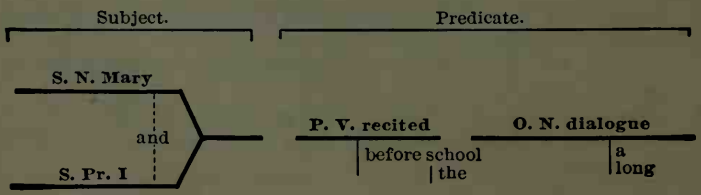
The ***subject noun*** is *snow.*

The ***predicate verb*** is *fell.*

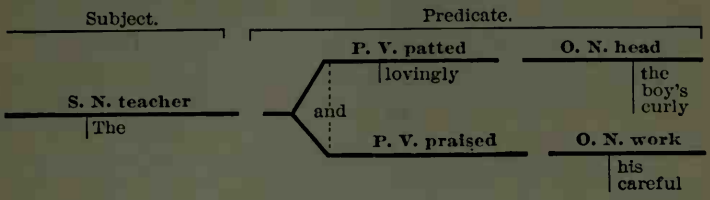
The ***modifiers*** of the subject noun are *The* and *feathery.*

The modifiers of the predicate verb are *silently* and the adverbial phrase *to the earth,* in which *the* modifies *earth.*

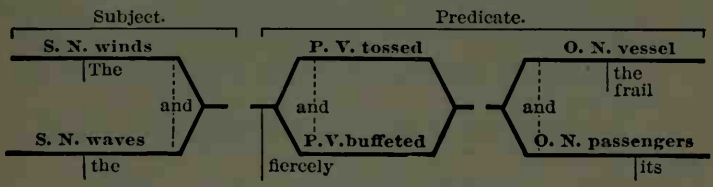
Mary and I recited a long dialogue before the school.



The teacher patted the boy's curly head lovingly and praised his careful work.



The winds and the waves fiercely tossed and buffeted the frail vessel and its passengers.



EXERCISE 19.—*In accordance with the preceding models, analyze the following simple sentences and explain the analyses:*

1. The bright flowers of the morning-glory climbed over the garden wall.
2. The tassels on the maple-trees sway softly in the breeze.
3. A tall lady with dark eyes stood before an ancient mirror.
4. The harvest-moon looked pleasantly down through the great elm-boughs.
5. The wise and strong should seek the welfare of the weak.
6. He put spurs to his horse and galloped away.
7. I have lived by the sea-shore and on the mountains.
8. The billows rolled and plunged upon the sand.
9. The editor read the poem and published it.

10. Paris is built on both sides of the Seine, and has many bridges.

11. Fierce winds often sweep over the desert and fill the air with sand.

12. The stars and the moon watched over the lost babes.

13. A white dove fluttered gently down to the little maid.

14. Cool ferns and soft mosses grow abundantly in the ravine.

15. The thirsty horses and cattle drank freely of the pure water.

16. A pretty child swung slowly in a hammock and sang a little song.

17. Madge arose, rubbed the frosted pane, and stared into the starry night.

18. The lost dog wandered about the streets and watched for ts master.

19. A soldier's widow and her only child lived in a little nut near the village.

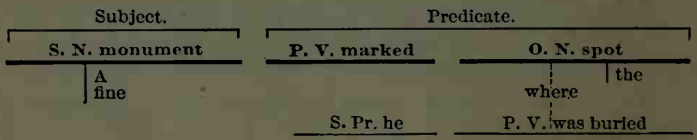
20. We heard the moaning of the wind and the patter of he rain.

21. The deer shrink northward from the settler's fire.

22. There I lingered all October through
In that sweet atmosphere of hazy blue.

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

80. *A fine monument marked the spot where he was buried.*



EXPLANATION.—It is a ***declarative*** sentence, because it expresses a statement.

It is a ***complex*** sentence, because it contains a principal and a subordinate clause.

The ***principal clause*** is *A fine monument marked the spot.*

The ***subordinate clause*** is *where he was buried;* the ***connective*** is *where.*

The ***subject*** of the sentence is *A fine monument.*

The ***predicate*** of the sentence is *marked the spot where he was buried.*

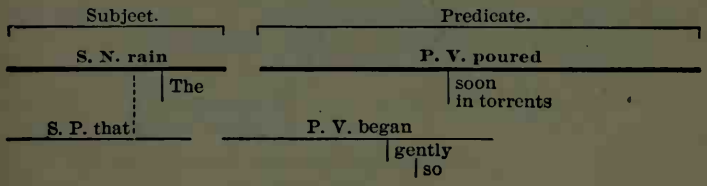
The ***subject noun*** is *monument;* its ***modifiers*** are the article *a* and the adjective *fine.*

The ***predicate verb*** is *marked.*

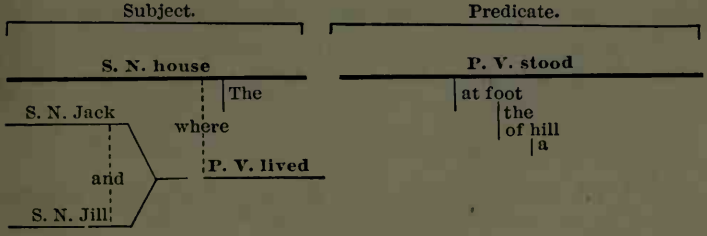
The ***object noun*** is *spot;* its ***modifiers*** are *the,* and the adjective clause, *where he was buried,* of which *he* is the ***subject pronoun,*** and *was buried* is the ***predicate verb.***

NOTE.—The higher rank of the principal clause is indicated by being printed in full-face type on heavy lines. The dependent clause is joined by a dotted line to the word it modifies.

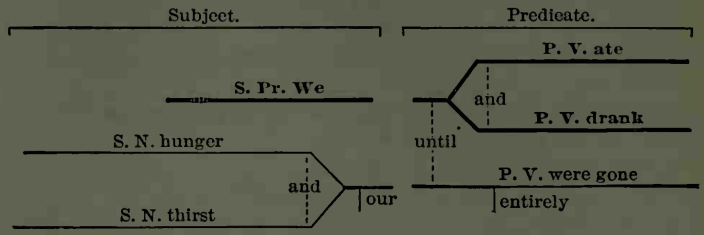
The rain that began so gently soon poured in torrents.



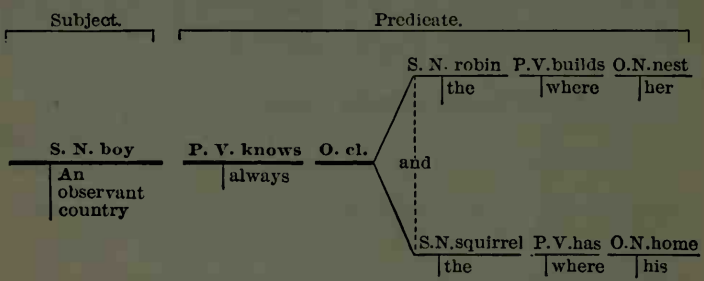
The house where Jack and Jill lived, stood at the foot of a steep hill.



We ate and drank until our hunger and thirst were entirely gone.



An observant country boy always knows where the robin builds her nest, and where the squirrel has his home.



EXERCISE 20.—*In accordance with the preceding models, analyze the following complex sentences, and explain the analysis:*

1. He who cries about spilled milk mourns unwisely.
2. China has many high mountains whose tops are almost always covered with snow.
3. The ermine lives wherever it can find a snug hiding-place.
4. I dozed and dreamed until the dawn flushed through the waning moonlight.

5. The children sat by the window that opened upon the veranda.

6. The child that was most loved died soonest.

7. I stood on the bridge at midnight,
As the clocks were striking the hour.

8. Jack and Jill lived in a little house that stood at the foot of the hill.

9. Character carries with it an influence that commands the confidence and respect of mankind.

10. The young moon hung in the purple west,
When the sun had gone to rest.

11. I admire a boy who has manliness and courage.

12. We stood upon the ragged rocks,
When the long day was nearly done.

13. The bark that is vainly tossed by the tempest may founder in the calm.

14. Winter dies when the violets awake.

15. He who laughs at crooked men should walk very straight.

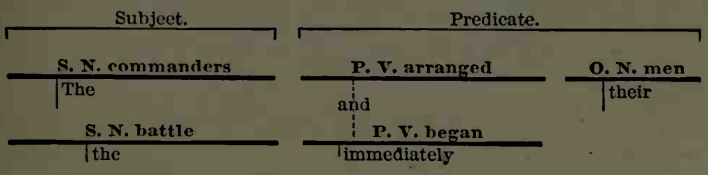
16. New knowledge that we discover for ourselves, always gives pleasure.

17. Roses were blooming in the gardens of the old Southern houses that stood along the bay.

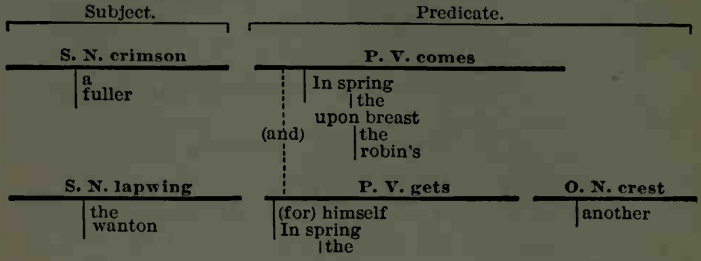
18. The swimmer bravely breasted the waves, which every moment threatened his destruction.

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

81. *The commanders arranged their men, and the battle began immediately.*



In the spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast;
In the spring the wanton lapwing gets himself another crest.



EXERCISE 21.—*Study the model given above, and analyze the following compound sentences:*

1. The child nestled in the corner, and the wind blew the rain away from her.

2. The cattle are quietly feeding in the pastures, and the people are resting in their pleasant homes.

3. The mountain slopes of Switzerland are covered with vineyards, and pleasant villages fill the valleys.

4. Men may come and men may go,
   But I go on forever.

5. I love my wife, I love my friend,
   I love my children three.

6. Now the lost has found a home,
   And a lone hearth shall brighter burn.

7. We enjoyed our walk, although the rain fell fast.

8. The wind was blowing over the moors,
   But the sun shone bright upon the heather.

9. The storm had cleared the air, and a heavenly calm succeeded.

10. A torn jacket is soon mended; but hard words bruise the heart of a child.

PART II.

CHAPTER I.

THE DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

82. Grammar tells us how words are formed, how they are classified, how they are joined to form sentences, how sentences are classified, and the relations that both words and sentences bear one to another. **(16.)**

83. Hence, grammar has to do,

1. With words separately considered; that is, not united to express thought.

2. With words joined in sentences.

84. A **spoken word** is a sound, or a combination of sounds, having a meaning.

85. When a word is written or printed, certain characters called *letters* are used to represent the sounds of the spoken word.

86. DEFINITION.—**Orthography** is that part of grammar which treats of the correct representation by letters of the sounds that make up a word.

The word *orthography* is derived from two Greek words, meaning *right* or *true*, and *writing*. It means, therefore, *correct writing*.

87. In the study of grammar, words are first classified according to the way in which they are used in sentences. This has led to the division of all the words in our language into eight classes, called **parts of speech.** It will be found, however, that nearly all of these classes or parts of speech may be further subdivided. This process of arranging the words of a language in classes is called **classification.**

88. Again, if you will look carefully at a sentence, such as, *Charles rode on his father's horse*, you will notice that three of the words, *rode*, *his*, and *father's*, are modifications of other words, and that each modification is made in order to express a variation of meaning. *Rode* is a modification of *ride*, to indicate that the event took place in past time. *His* is a modified form of *he*, and *'s* is added to *father*, in both cases to show possession. All such changes are called **inflections.**

89. DEFINITION.—**Inflection** is any change in the form of a word to indicate variation in meaning or use.

90. Inflections may be made in four ways:

1. By an ***internal change*** in the word; as, *ride, rode; see, saw; man, men.*

2. By ***adding*** a letter or a syllable; as, *learn, learns, learned; book, book's, books; straight, straighter, straightest.*

3. By the use of ***auxiliary*** or ***helping words;*** as, *learn, **will** learn, **have** learned, **had** learned; happy, **more** happy, **most** happy.*

4. By the use of a ***word quite different in spelling and sound;*** as, *be, **am, is, was;** good, **better, best.***

91. That form of a word to which inflections are added is called the ***stem***. Thus *learn* is the stem to which *s* and *ed* are added to form *learns* and *learned*.

92. The inflections of *nouns* and *pronouns* are called **declensions**; of *adjectives* and *adverbs*, **comparisons**; of *verbs*, **conjugations.** Prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are not inflected.

93. Then again, in studying words, we may consider not only the classes into which they are divided, and the changes they undergo in order to express our meaning, but also their *growth* and *structure*.

94. Some words are **prime**; that is, they can not be traced back to any simpler words in the language; as, *man, bush, tree.*

Others are **compound**; that is, are composed of two or more simple words; as, *rose-bush, apple-tree.*

Others are **derivative**; that is, are built up by adding prefixes (syllables placed before) or suffixes (endings) to simple words; as, ***befriend*** and *friend**ship,*** from *friend.*

95. Word-formation deals with the study of the growth and structure of words.

Summing up, we may say that words are studied as to their *classification*, as to their *inflection*, and as to their *formation*. These are the main divisions of that part of grammar known as **Etymology.**

96. DEFINITION.—**Etymology** is that part of grammar which treats of the classification, inflection, and formation of words.

The word *etymology* comes from two Greek words, meaning

true and *word*. It means, therefore, *the science of the true meaning of words.*

97. But grammar, as we learned in § 82, treats not only of individual words, but also of the joining of words in sentences.

98. DEFINITION.—**Syntax** is that part of grammar which treats of the way in which words are joined in sentences.

The word *syntax* is derived from two Greek words, meaning *together* and *arrangement*. It signifies, therefore, *proper arrangement.*

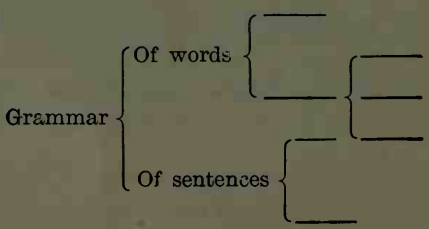
99. Syntax lays down the rules that govern the formation of all sentences, whether in prose or in verse.

100. In addition, however, to the rules of syntax, there are special rules for the arrangement of words in the musically measured sentences used in poetry.

101. DEFINITION.—**Prosody** is that part of grammar which treats of the rules that govern verse.

The word *prosody* comes from a Greek word, meaning *harmonious*. It properly means *the measurement of verse.*

EXERCISE 22.—*Complete the following synopsis:*



QUESTIONS.

What are the two principal subjects of which grammar treats?

Into what may a spoken word be analyzed? What is meant by analysis?

How is an elementary sound represented? Define *orthography*.

What is the principle on which words are classified? What are the classes called? How many are there? Name them.

If you change the form of a word in order to express the meaning you desire to convey, what is the change called? Define *inflection*.

State four ways in which inflections are made, and give an example of each.

What are the inflections of a noun or a pronoun called? Of a verb? Of an adjective? Of an adverb?

How are words classified according to structure?

What is the difference between a simple word and a compound word? Between a simple word and a derivative word? Between a compound word and a derivative word?

What are the three parts of etymology? Define *etymology*. Define *syntax*. Define *prosody*.

CHAPTER II.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

102. DEFINITION.—**Orthography** is that part of grammar which treats of the correct representation by letters of the sounds that make up a word.

103. We must distinguish between spoken sounds and the names of the letters or characters used to represent these sounds in writing or printing.

Authorities differ as to the exact number of sounds used in pronouncing the words of the English language, but most of them agree in placing the number at not less than forty-three.

104. An alphabet of a language is composed of all its letters arranged in order.

The word *alphabet* is derived from *alpha* and *beta*, the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet.

The earliest written characters were, like the Egyptian hieroglyphics, pictures of objects, and from these our letter forms are derived.

105. The letters of the English alphabet are twenty-six in number, as follows:

ROMAN: Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh, Ii, Jj, Kk, Ll, Mm, Nn, Oo, Pp, Qq, Rr, Ss, Tt, Uu, Vv, Ww, Xx, Yy, Zz.

SCRIPT: *𝒜𝒶, ℬ𝒷, 𝒞𝒸, 𝒟𝒹, ℰ𝑒, ℱ𝒻, 𝒢𝑔, ℋ𝒽, ℐ𝒾, 𝒥𝒿, 𝒦𝓀, ℒ𝓁, ℳ𝓂, 𝒩𝓃, 𝒪ℴ, 𝒫𝓅, 𝒬𝓆, ℛ𝓇, 𝒮𝓈, 𝒯𝓉, 𝒰𝓊, 𝒱𝓋, 𝒲𝓌, 𝒳𝓍, 𝒴𝓎, 𝒵𝓏.*

ITALIC: *Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh, Ii, Jj, Kk, Ll, Mm, Nn, Oo, Pp, Qq, Rr, Ss, Tt, Uu, Vv, Ww, Xx, Yy, Zz.*

OLD ENGLISH: 𝔄𝔞, 𝔅𝔟, 𝔠𝔠, 𝔇𝔡, 𝔈𝔢, 𝔉𝔣, 𝔊𝔤, 𝔎𝔥, 𝔦𝔦, 𝔍𝔧, 𝔎𝔨, 𝔏𝔩, 𝔐𝔪, 𝔑𝔫, 𝔒𝔬, 𝔓𝔭, 𝔔𝔮, 𝔯𝔯, 𝔖𝔰, 𝔗𝔱, 𝔘𝔲, 𝔙𝔳, 𝔚𝔴, 𝔛𝔵, 𝔜𝔶, 𝔷𝔷.

106. A perfect alphabet should possess a separate character for each distinct sound.

The English alphabet is both defective and redundant. It is defective, because it has not a separate character for each sound. The letter *a*, for example, represents at least six distinct sounds. It is redundant, because the same sound is in some cases represented by more than one letter. For instance, the two sounds of *c* are also represented by *k* and *s*.

107. The letters of the alphabet are divided into *vowels* and *consonants*.

This division rests upon the way in which the sounds represented by these letters are produced. Sound is produced by the vibrations of the vocal chords, ligaments situated on each side of the windpipe. The opening between these ligaments is called the *glottis*. The waves of sound are modified into vowels and consonants by the articulating organs; namely, the lips, tongue, teeth, palate, and the cavity of the nostrils.

108. A vowel sound is a sound produced by a continuous passage of the breath.

Vowel sounds are produced by the vibrations of the vocal chords.

The pitch or tone of a vowel is determined by the vocal chords, but its quality depends upon the configuration of the mouth or buccal tube.

For the formation of the three principal vowels we give the interior of the mouth two extreme positions. In one we round the lips and draw down the tongue, so that the cavity of the mouth assumes the shape of a bottle without a neck, and we pronounce *u*. In the other we narrow the lips, and draw up the tongue as high as possible, so that the buccal tube resembles a bottle with a very wide neck, and we pronounce *i* (as in French and German like long *e*). If the lips are wide open, and the tongue lies flat and in its natural position, we pronounce long *a*.

Between these three elementary articulations there is an indefinite variety of vowel sounds.—MORRIS, *English Accidence*.

109. The letters that represent the vowel sounds are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

At the beginning of a syllable, or before a vowel in the same syllable, *w* and *y* are consonants; as, *wine*, *twine*; *yield*, *unyielding*. At the end of a word or syllable they are vowels; as, *joy*, *joyous*; *cow*, *cow-ard*.

110. A diphthong is formed by the blending of two vowel sounds into one sound in the same syllable; as, *oi* in *boil*, *ow* in *now*.

The word *diphthong* means literally *double sound*.

Often two vowel characters are written where only one is pronounced; as, *fear, gauge, goat.* These are not true diphthongs. The letter not to be pronounced is said to be *silent.*

111. The vowel characters represent nineteen sounds, which, with the accepted diacritical marks, and the more usual vowel equivalents, are given below:

ā, *long*, as in *ale;* like **e** in *prey.*
ă, *short*, as in *fat.*
â, as in *care;* like **ê** in *there.*
ä, *Italian*, as in *arm.*
à, as in *ask.*
ą, *broad*, as in *all;* like **ô** in *fork*, **aw** in *pawn*, **au** in *faun.*
ē, *long*, as in *me;* like **ī** in *police.*
ĕ, *short*, as in *met;* like **ai** in *said*, **ay** in *says.*
ẽ, as in *her;* like **ĭ** in *bird*, **ŭ** in *urge.*
ī, *long*, as in *ice;* like **ȳ** in *fly.*
ĭ, *short*, as in *tin;* like **ў** in *hymn.*
ō, *long*, as in *old;* like **ew** in *sew*, **eau** in *beau.*
ŏ, *short*, as in *not;* like **ą** in *what.*
ū, *long*, as in *use;* like **ew** in *few.*
ŭ, *short*, as in *sun;* like **ȯ** in *none.*
u̱, as in *rude;* like **o̱** in *to*, **o͞o** in *moon.*
u̇, as in *pull;* like **o̱** in *wolf*, **o͝o** in *foot.*
oi, as in *boil;* like **oy** in *boy.*
ow, as in *how;* like **ou** in *our.*

112. A consonant is a sound produced by an obstruction to the breath.

The word *consonant* comes from the Latin *con, with*, and *sono, I sound.* The consonant sounds are so called because, though they may be sounded separately, yet they are used only in combination with vowels in forming syllables. In English, a consonant alone never forms a syllable.

113. Consonants are divided into (1) **Mutes,**

sounds in the production of which the breath is completely stopped or checked, as *b* and *p*; and (2) **Spirants**, in the production of which the breath is not altogether stopped, as *v* and *f*.

114. When not only the breath is stopped, but the veil that separates the nose from the membranous pouch forming the back part of the mouth, called the pharynx, is drawn aside, the consonants *n*, *ng*, and *m*, are formed. They are called **nasals**.

115. Consonants, considered with reference to the organs by which they are produced, are:

1. ***Aspirate,*** as *h*, produced by forcing the breath through the glottis.
2. ***Gutturals,*** by the throat; as, *k*, *g*, *ch* in *chorus*.
3. ***Palatals,*** by the palate; as, *ch* in *church*, and *j*.
4. ***Dentals,*** by the teeth; as, *t*, *d*, *th*.
5. ***Linguals,***—otherwise called ***sibilants*** from their hissing sound,—by the tongue; as, *sh*, *zh*, *s*, *z*.
6. ***Labials,*** by the lips; as *p*, *b*, *f*, *v*.

L and *r* are sometimes called ***trills,*** because their production is accompanied by a vibratory movement of the soft palate and the tongue respectively.

116. Consonant sounds that require considerable effort in their production, as *p* and *t*, are called *hard* or *sharp*; those that require less effort, as, *b* and *d*, are called *soft* or *flat*.

117. In the following table the consonant sounds are arranged in order, beginning with those produced in the throat, and ending with those produced by the lips:

	SPIRANTS.			MUTES.			
	Hard.	Soft.	Trilled.	Hard.	Soft.	Nasal.	
1. Glottis.....	h	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Aspirate.
2. Root of tongue and soft palate	.....	.....	.....	k, g	.....	ng	Gutturals.
3. Root of tongue and hard palate	.....	y (yea)	.....	ch (church)	j (judge)	.....	Palatals.
4. Tip of tongue and teeth.....	.....	.....	.....	t	d	n	Dentals.
5. Tongue and edge of teeth.....	th (pith)	th (breathe)	.....	.....	.....	.....	Dentals.
6. Tip of tongue and teeth.....	z (pose)	s (sin)	l	.....	.....	.....	Linguals.
7. Tongue reversed and palate.....	zh (azure) (pleasure)	sh (sharp) (sure)	r	.....	.....	.....	Linguals.
8. Lower lip and teeth.....	f	v	.....	.....	.....	.....	Labials.
9. Upper and lower lips.....	.....	.....	.....	p	b	m	Labials.
10. Upper and lower lips rounded...	hw (which)	w (with)	.....	.....	.....	.....	

118. The following letters have been omitted from this table: (1) *c*, because when used before a consonant or *a*, *o*, *u*, it has the sound of *k*, as in *case*, and when used before *e*, *i*, *y*, it has the sound of *s*, soft, as in *rice;* (2) the soft sound of *g*, as in *gem*, because this is the same as *j;* (3) *q*, because it is equivalent to *kw;* (4) *x*, because it is equivalent to *ks* or *gs*.

NOTE TO TEACHERS.—The classifications of vowels and consonants printed above are not given to be memorized, but for purposes of reference as occasion may require, and as a guide to drills in articulation. Pupils should be systematically drilled in the enunciation of the elementary vowel and consonant sounds, both separately and in combination, care being taken that in each instance the vocal organs are properly exercised. If, in sounding the consonants, children are required to observe and tell how they use the tongue, lips, teeth, etc., they will unconsciously learn the classes of gutturals, etc.—a knowledge that will be of incalculable value to those who proceed to the study of comparative philology, or even of a language other than their own.

THE USE OF CAPITALS.

119. There are two ways in which to write each of the letters—as a *capital*, and as a *small letter*.

Nearly all of our writing and printing is in small letters. Capitals are used occasionally for the sake of giving prominence to words. The first letter of a word is written as a capital in accordance with the following rules:

RULES FOR CAPITALS.

1. **Begin with a capital the first word of every sentence.**
2. **Begin with a capital the first word of every line of poetry.**
3. **Begin with a capital every proper noun and every proper adjective.**

4. Begin with a capital every name or title of the Deity.

5. Write the pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* with capitals.

6. Begin with capitals the names of the days of the week and the months of the year.

7. Begin with capitals the important words in the title of a book, or in the subject of any other composition.

8. Begin with a capital every title of honor or respect.

9. Begin with capitals the names of points of the compass when they denote sections of a country.

Gold is found in the great North-west.

10. Begin with a capital every word that denotes an important epoch or event of history.

The Civil War lasted four years.

11. Begin with a capital every personified common noun.

Then Peace shall smile upon us, and Plenty abide among us.

12. Begin with a capital the name of every religious denomination.

13. Begin with a capital every *direct* quotation. The first word of an *indirect* quotation should begin with a small letter, unless it requires a capital by the operation of some other rule.

Direct.—He quoted the maxim, "Honesty is the best policy."
Indirect.—He reminded us that honesty is the best policy.

Italics, Small Capitals, etc.

120. The letters used in ordinary printing are called Roman, because they were those used in writing the Latin language. If we desire to call particular attention to a word, we may print it in *italic* characters; if to make it very emphatic, in SMALL CAPITALS; and if to make it still more emphatic, in LARGE CAPITALS.

1. Italics may be used for words that we desire to make emphatic, particularly if two or more words are placed in contrast; as,

Amongst the arts connected with the *elegancies* of social life, in a degree which nobody denies, is the art of conversation; but in a degree which almost everybody denies, if one may judge by their neglect of its simplest rules, this same art is not less connected with the *uses* of social life.—DE QUINCEY, *Conversation.*

It is well to be very sparing in the use of *italics.* Their frequent employment is generally the mark of a weak thinker and unpracticed writer.

2. Words borrowed from another language are generally, and the names of newspapers, magazines, and books, sometimes, printed in italics; as,

I prefer to be owned as sound and solvent, and my word as good as my bond, and to be what can not be skipped, or dissipated, or undermined, to all the *éclat* in the universe.—EMERSON, *Illusions.*

Robinson Crusoe, which is a fairy tale to the child, a book of adventure to the young, is a work on social philosophy to the mature. It is a picture of civilization.—FREDERIC HARRISON, *The Choice of Books.*

It is also quite usual to write the names of books and periodicals within quotation marks.

In manuscript, *italics* are indicated by a single line drawn underneath a word; SMALL CAPITALS, by two lines; LARGE CAPITALS, by three lines.

SYLLABLES.

121. A **syllable** is a vowel, or a vowel accompanied by one or more consonants, which is pronounced by a single effort of the voice, and forms a word or part of a word; as, *I, you, im-ag-i-na-tion.*

122. A **monosyllable** is a word of one syllable; a **dissyllable**, a word of two syllables; a **trisyllable**, a word of three syllables; and a **polysyllable**, a word of four or more syllables.

123. The *hyphen* (-) is a mark used in writing, when we desire to denote the division between syllables, or between the parts of a compound word.

Syllabication, or the act of dividing a word into its syllables, is very important, since correct pronunciation requires that each syllable should receive its due value.

In writing, it is seldom necessary to use the hyphen except at the end of a line, when, from lack of space, part of a word must be carried over to the next line. The following rules are important:

1. In dividing a word it is improper to make the division except at the end of a syllable; as, *hu-man, rhet-o-ric.*

2. When two consonants come together, the first generally ends, the second begins, a syllable; as, *mem-ber, hum-ble.*

3. Two vowels coming together should be separated, unless they form a diphthong, or one of them is silent; as, *fre-er.*

4. In the case of a derivative or compound word, it should be so divided as to throw the parts into separate syllables; as, *im-pede, assist-ance, some-where.*

Accent.

124. Accent is the stress of the voice upon a syllable of a word; as, *hu'-mid, in-tend'.*

As a general rule, it may be said that the accent should be laid upon the root part of a word, rather than upon a prefix or a suffix; as, *in-ten'-tion, im-pose'.*

125. Many dissyllables, when accented on the first syllable, are nouns or adjectives; when accented on the last syllable, verbs; as,

Nouns or Adjectives.	*Verbs.*
per'fect	per fect'
con'vert	con vert'
con'tract	con tract'
in'crease	in crease'
sur'vey	sur vey'

126. A few dissyllables, when accented on the first syllable, are nouns; when accented on the last syllable, adjectives:

Nouns.	*Adjectives.*
Au'gust	au gust'
com'pact	com pact'
in'stinct	in stinct'
min'ute	min ute'
su'pine	su pine'

SPELLING.

127. **Spelling** is the process of naming, or of writing in proper order, the letters of a word.

If each letter represented but one sound, spelling would be an easy matter; but as our alphabet is both redundant and defective, it is one of great difficulty. The best way to become an accurate speller is to read much, to observe closely the forms of words, and to write frequently. To know the derivation of a word often gives a key to its spelling. If you are not sure of the spelling of a word, do not write it until you have looked it up in a dictionary. Other matters of importance in connection with spelling will be discussed in the chapter on "Word Formation."

128. Dr. Abbott lays down this principle to explain many of the curious things in English spelling, some of which are indicated in the following rules:

*A letter is often changed or doubled in passing from one form of a word to another, in order to preserve the original sound.**

* See Abbott's "How to Parse," pp. 174–178.

129. I.—Final *y* preceded by a consonant is changed into *i* upon the addition of any affix (except *ing*) beginning with a vowel, or before *ment*, *ly*, *ful*, *ness*, *fy*, *hood*; as, *happy*, *happier*, *happiness*; *defy*, *defiance*; *country*, *countries*; *beauty*, *beautiful*, *beautify*; *hardy*, *hardihood*.

The reason is, that, if this change were not made, the sound might be altered. For example, *hazier* might be pronounced *haz-yer*. *Babyhood* is an exception.

Beauteous and *plenteous* are adjectives not formed according to the rule.

130. II.—Final *y* preceded by a vowel, or before the affix *ing*, is retained; as, *pity*, *pitying*; *valley*, *valleys*; *money*, *moneys*.

The *y* is retained before *ing* to prevent the repetition of *i*; and, in the other cases, because the sound is not affected.

Die forms *dying*; *lie*, *lying*; *tie*, *tying*; *vie*, *vying*; to prevent the accumulation of vowels.

131. III.—Final *e silent* is generally omitted before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *grieve*, *griev-ance*; *please*, *pleas-ure*.

Exceptions to this rule are words ending in *ce* or *ge*, which retain the *e* before suffixes beginning with *a* or *o* in order to prevent a change of sound in the *c* or *g*; as, *service*, *service-able*; *outrage*, *outrage-ous*.

Again, when *e* is preceded by *e*, *o*, *y*, it is often retained before *ing*, *able*; as, *shoe-ing*, *agree-able*. This is to prevent a change of sound.

The *e* in *dye-ing* is preserved to distinguish the word from *dying*.

132. IV.—Final *e* is generally retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant; as, *pale, pale-ness.*

Exceptions to this rule are *abridgment, acknowledgment, argument, awful, duly, judgment, truly, wholly, nursling.*

133. V.—Derivatives formed by adding one or more syllables to words ending in a double consonant, usually retain both consonants; as, *ebb, ebbing; stiff, stiffness; will, willful*; *shrill, shrillness.*

Exceptions are *almost, although, albeit, also, altogether, belfry, welfare, elbow.*

134. VI.—Derivatives formed by prefixing one or more syllables to words ending in a double consonant usually retain both consonants; as, *undersell, farewell, downfall, fulfill, befell.*

Until and adjectives terminating in *ful* are exceptions.

135. VII.—Monosyllables, and polysyllables accented on the last syllable, when they end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *thin, thin-ner; hop, hop-ping; forget, forget-ting*; *acquit, acquit-ting.*

The reason of this fact is to preserve the sound of the original word. Were the *p* in *hop* not doubled before *ing*, the word would be confounded with *hoping*, the present participle of *hope*.

A final consonant, when it is preceded by two vowels, or when the accent does not fall on the last syllable, is not doubled before an additional syllable; as, *toil, toiling; offer, offering; travel, traveler; worship, worshiper.*

CHAPTER III.

ETYMOLOGY.

136. Etymology treats of the classification, inflection, and formation of words. (See **96.**)

137. According to their use in the sentence, all the words in our language are arranged in eight classes, called *parts of speech.* These are,

1. The noun.
2. The pronoun.
3. The adjective.
4. The verb.
5. The adverb.
6. The preposition.
7. The conjunction.
8. The interjection.

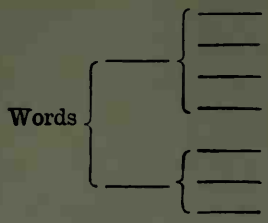
138. As the words comprised in the classes, *noun*, *adjective*, *verb*, and *adverb*, express each a notion or idea of its own, these are sometimes called **notional** words.

139. As the words comprised in the classes, *pronoun*, *preposition*, and *conjunction*, serve only to show the relations of other words one to another, they are termed **relational** words.

The interjection has no grammatical relation to the other words of the sentence; nor does it express a notion or idea. It serves rather to color the thought of the sentence with feeling. (See **41.**)

In the English language, as it is known to us in the earliest writings still extant, the relations of notional words one to another are indicated by inflections. Most of these inflections have been dropped and their places taken by relational words.

EXERCISE 23.—*Complete the following table:*



THE NOUN.

140. DEFINITION.—A **Noun** is a word used as the name of something: *Washington, Charles; horse, tree; committee, crowd; happiness, truth.*

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

141. In the sentence, *The Hudson is a large river*, two words, *Hudson* and *river*, are names of the same object, and, both being names, they are *nouns*. But there is a difference in their meaning. The name *river* is a term that is applied to any body of water answering a certain description.

The name *Hudson*, on the other hand, is given to a single river to distinguish it from all other bodies of water of the same kind. It belongs to one particular river.

142. Hence, nouns, according as they are names used to distinguish individual objects from other objects of the same kind, or are given in common to a number of objects of the same kind, are divided into two great classes:

I. ***Proper Nouns.*** II. ***Common Nouns.***

143. DEFINITION.—A **proper noun** is a name that belongs only to some particular person, place, or thing.

The word *proper* is derived from the Latin *proprius*, meaning *one's own*.

144. The same proper name is sometimes given to more than one individual of a class. Thus, there are many *Johns*, *Marys*, etc.; several towns are called *Washington;* there is a *Boston* in America, and a *Boston* in England. These names are, however, strictly proper nouns, because they were separately given, and are used to distinguish individuals, and not classes.

Occasionally, proper nouns are used to denote a class or group; as, *the Cæsars*, *the Adamses*, meaning all who belong to certain families. Again, the name of some distinguished man is sometimes applied to another who is supposed to possess similar qualities; as, *a modern Solon*, meaning a statesman resembling the great Greek lawgiver; *a young Napoleon*, *a Daniel come to judgment*. In such cases the proper noun is said to be used as a common noun.

145. DEFINITION.—A **common noun** is a noun that is used as the name of a class of things.

The word *common* is derived from a Latin word that means *belonging to more than one*. Hence, a common noun is a name that belongs not only to a class, but to each individual of that class.

146. All common nouns are names of classes. But, as classes are of various kinds, so there are different kinds of common nouns to distinguish different classes.

147. A class of things is usually made up of single objects that possess some distinguishing mark

or marks in common; as, *plant*, *horse*, *stone*. Many of these classes may be separated into smaller classes, each composed of individual objects. Thus, the class of things called *plants* may be divided into *trees*, *shrubs*, and *herbs*. Each of these classes may be further divided: *trees* into *pine*, *oak*, *maple*, etc.; *shrubs* into *rose*, *currant*, *gooseberry*, etc.; *herbs* into *clover*, *pink*, *geranium*, etc. Now, the distinguishing mark of these classes is that they are each made up of things or objects having some quality or property in common. And, as our notion of an object is made up of several united qualities, such as size, shape, color, etc., we may call the name of such an object a **concrete common noun.**

148. DEFINITION.—A **concrete noun** is a common noun that denotes an object or a class of objects by a union of qualities.

Under this head are included the names of things in bulk; as, *wheat*, *grain:* and the names of materials; as, *iron*, *wood*, etc.

The word *object* means *a thing thrown in the way* of the mind to think about.

The word *concrete* properly means *grown together;* hence, it is used to mean a person or thing with all his or its qualities.

149. There are some names that denote groups of objects. We speak, for instance, of a *family* (meaning *father*, *mother*, *brothers*, *sisters*, etc.), of a *herd* of cattle, a *bevy* of young ladies, a *crowd* of people, a *brood* of chickens, a *bunch* of grapes, a *row* of houses. In all these cases the names denote

classes. But the unit of thought—that about which the mind is thinking—is not a single object, but a group of objects. Hence, a name that denotes a group is called a **collective common noun.**

150. DEFINITION.—A **collective noun** is a common noun that denotes a group or a class made up of groups of objects.

151. The difference between a concrete common noun and a collective common noun, is this: a concrete common noun, such as *tree*, is a name not only for a class of plants, but also for each individual member of that class; the *oak* is a *tree*, the *maple* is a *tree*, the *pine* is a *tree*, and so on. The collective noun *forest*, on the other hand, while it may be applied to any one of many collections or groups of trees, can not be applied to an individual tree. We can not say, *The oak is a forest*, or the like.

152. Again, there are names that do not denote directly either things or groups of things. We may think or speak, not of the *person* John, but of some quality of his body, as, *height*, *weight;* of some quality of his character, as, *honesty*, *folly*, *goodness;* or of some power of his mind, as, *memory*, *imagination.* The name of a quality, feeling, action, etc., thought of as separated or *abstracted* from the object to which it belongs, is called an **abstract common noun.**

153. DEFINITION.—An **abstract noun** is a common noun that denotes a class of qualities, feelings, faculties, or actions; as, *whiteness*, *joy*, *memory*, *punishment.*

The word *abstract* is derived from the Latin word *abstractus*, meaning *drawn away*, or *separated*.

154. As the adjective is the part of speech that expresses quality, most abstract nouns are formed from adjectives, and denote the qualities when considered apart from the persons or things to which they belong; as, *good, goodness; wise, wisdom.*

Many abstract nouns are formed by the addition of the suffix *ness*; as, *bright, brightness; righteous, righteousness; black, blackness.*

Some end in *th*; as, *true, truth; wide, width; dead, death.*

Others end in *ty*; as, *noble, nobility; curious, curiosity; honest, honesty.*

Others, again, take the termination *ce*; as, *prudent, prudence; patient, patience*; *reverent, reverence.*

155. Abstract nouns denoting actions considered apart from the actors, are formed from verbs; as, *serve, service; choose, choice.*

Many abstract nouns formed from verbs end in *tion*; as, *protect, protection; move, motion; reflect, reflection.*

Other examples are *relief, advice, pleasure.*

156. Abstract nouns are also formed from concrete common nouns; as, *thief, theft; hero, heroism.*

Such derivatives generally mean the state or condition de noted by the nouns from which they are derived.

Many such nouns end in *ship*; as, *friendship*, the condition of being a friend; *leadership*, the condition of being a leader.

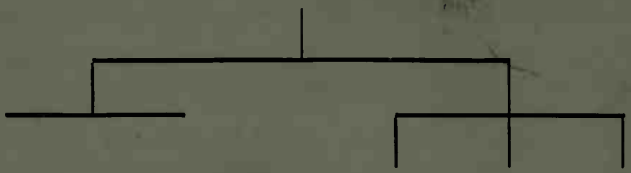
Others again end in *hood*; as, *manhood*, the condition of being a man; *childhood*, the condition of being a child.

157. When an abstract noun is used to denote a class of

individuals, it becomes a common noun. The word *nobility*, for example, is used in England to denote not only the quality of being noble, but a particular class of people who are supposed to possess this quality. When so used it is a common noun.

EXERCISE 24.—*Complete the following table:*

NOUNS.



EXERCISE 25.—*From a page of your Reader select all the nouns and classify them as* **proper, concrete, abstract,** *and* **collective.**

QUESTIONS.

Define *etymology*.

On what principle is a classification of words made? What is meant by a *part of speech?* Name the parts of speech. What is meant by a *notional* word? A *relational* word?

Define *noun*.

Wherein do a proper noun and a common noun agree? Wherein do they differ?

Wherein do a concrete common noun, a collective common noun, and an abstract common noun, agree? Wherein do they differ?

What is the literal meaning of the word *proper?* The word *common?* The word *abstract?*

How are abstract common nouns classified according to their structure? Give examples and state the meaning of each.

INFLECTIONS OF NOUNS.

158. Nouns may be inflected, or changed in form, to indicate difference in *number*, *gender*, and *case*.

These *properties* belong to both nouns and pronouns.

NUMBER.

159. DEFINITION.—**Number** is that form or use of a word by which it denotes one or more than one. *Hat, hats; fox, foxes; mouse, mice.*

160. It follows that there are two numbers in English grammar; one to express one thing, another to express more than one.

161. DEFINITION.—The **singular** number of a noun is the form or use of it that denotes *one.*

162. DEFINITION.—The **plural** number of a noun is the form or use of it that denotes *more than one.*

163. The singular is regarded as the stem of the noun, and from it the plural is formed in various ways.

RULE.—*Most nouns add* ***s*** *or* ***es*** *to the singular to form the plural. Book,* ***books****; lion,* ***lions****; branch,* ***branches****.*

164. When the *s* sound can be attached without making an additional syllable, *s* alone is used; as, *boy,* ***boys****; girl, girls.*

165. But when the *s* sound makes an additional syllable, *es* is used. This is the case where the

singular ends in a hissing sound, such as *s*, *z*, *x*, *sh*, and *ch* (sounded as in the word *church*); as, *hiss*, ***hisses***; *adz*, ***adzes***; *sash*, ***sashes***.

166. Custom has made some nouns ending in *o* add *s* to the singular to form the plural, and others *es*.

Some of those which add *s* are the following:

bravo	grotto	solo	folio
canto	octavo	stiletto	nuncio
duodecimo	portico	tyro	oratorio
embryo	quarto	virtuoso	portfolio

Some of those which add *es* are the following:

buffalo	echo	mosquito	potato
calico	flamingo	motto	tomato
cargo	hero	mulatto	tornado
domino	manifesto	negro	volcano

167. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel form their plurals in the regular way; as, *valley*, ***valleys***.

But when the singular ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i* and *es* is added to form the plural; as, *duty*, ***duties***; *sky*, ***skies***; *spy*, ***spies***. (See **129** and **130**.)

168. Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plurals according to the rule, but some change the *f* into *v* and the plural form ends in *ves*; as, *fifes*, *skiffs*, *cliffs*, *strifes*; *half*, *halves*; *shelf*, *shelves*.

169. A few nouns form their plurals in ways once common in our language, but now little used.

1. By adding *en*; as,

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
ox	oxen	brother	brethren
cow	kine	child	children

Oxen is the only word in which the plural termination *en*, once very common, is now preserved in its purity. In the other cases, the words have been gradually modified to their present forms.

2. By changing the vowel sound of the word; as,

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
man	men	tooth	teeth
foot	feet	mouse	mice
goose	geese	woman	women

170. A few nouns have the same form for the singular and the plural; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*, *cod*, *trout*, *mackerel*, etc.

171. Many nouns have been imported into the English language from foreign languages. When these have passed into common use, they form their plurals in the regular way. Examples are *indexes*, *bandits*, *cherubs*, *formulas*, *memorandums*, *focuses*, *terminuses*. But the foreign plurals, *indices*, *banditti*, *cherubim*, *formulæ*, *memoranda*, *foci*, *termini*, are also used.

Others, not used so frequently, retain their foreign plurals. Examples are:

LATIN.

Singular.	*Plural.*
larva	larvæ
nebula	nebulæ
radius	radii
dictum	dicta
datum	data
effluvium	effluvia
erratum	errata
medium	media
stratum	strata
apex	apices
appendix	appendices
index (in algebra)	indices
vertex	vertices
vortex	vortices
axis	axes
amanuensis	amanuenses
genus	genera

GREEK.

Singular.	*Plural.*
automaton	automata
criterion	criteria
phenomenon	phenomena
analysis	analyses
thesis	theses
antithesis	antitheses
hypothesis	hypotheses
basis	bases
crisis	crises
ellipsis	ellipses
miasma	miasmata

FRENCH.

beau	beaux
(Mr.)	Messieurs
(Mrs.)	Mesdames

172. *Messieurs* and *Mesdames* are French words adopted into English as the plurals of *Mr.* and *Mrs.*

Some foreign nouns are generally used in the plural; as, *aborigines*, *literati*.

173. Some words, plural in form, are usually treated as singular; as, *means*, *news*, *amends*, *odds*, *tidings*, *wages*, *summons*, *gallows*.

Means, *pains*, and *wages* may be used in the plural. *News* is always singular. *Summons* takes a plural, *summonses*.

174. Certain nouns ending in *ics*, derived from Greek adjectives, are always used in the singular; as, *politics*, *ethics*, *physics*, *optics*, *mathematics*.

Logic, similarly derived, omits the *s*.

175. Some nouns, because they are the names of things found only in pairs, or consisting of more than one part, are used only in the plural. Such are:

scissors	victuals	shears
tongs	entrails	measles
breeches	nuptials	matins
drawers	scales	tweezers
pincers	dregs	trousers

176. The nouns *riches*, *alms*, and *eaves*, though often treated as plurals, are really singular in form.

177. Some nouns have two plurals, which differ in meaning; as,

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
brother	brothers (by birth)	brethren (of a community)
cloth	cloths (kinds of cloth)	clothes (garments)
die	dies (for coining)	dice (for play)
fish	fishes (separate fish)	fish (collective)
genius	geniuses (persons of great ability)	genii (spirits).
index	indexes (tables of contents)	indices (in Algebra).
pea	peas (regarded separately)	pease (collective).
penny	pennies (separate coins)	pence (sum of money).
shot	shots (discharges)	shot (balls).

178. Some nouns have, in the plural, one form and two meanings; as,

Singular.	*Plurals.*
custom	customs: (1) habits; (2) revenue duties.
letter	letters: (1) of alphabet; (2) literature.
number	numbers: (1) in counting; (2) in poetry.
pain	pains: (1) sufferings; (2) trouble, care.
part	parts: (1) divisions; (2) abilities.

179. Proper nouns generally form their plurals regularly.

In names of persons, where a descriptive term or a title is prefixed, the name alone adds *s* for the plural; as, *the two Dr. Smiths.*

We may say, however, the *Miss Browns*, or the *Misses Brown.* The first form seems to imply that they are thought of separately; the second, collectively.

We may speak of *Misses Jane and Mary Wheeler;* or *Miss Jane and Miss Mary Wheeler.*

If two or more different men are spoken of, we use *Messieurs*, usually written in the contracted form, *Messrs.;* as, *Messrs. Jackson, Dix, and Harmon.*

In enumerating several ladies by their surnames, we write *Mesdames*, if they are married; *Misses*, if they are single.

180. Abstract nouns have no plural.

Occasionally, however, these nouns are used, not to signify a quality or an action regarded separately, but to denote particular varieties of quality or particular actions. They then become concrete common nouns, and take the plural form. Hence, we speak of *liberties, virtues, vices*, etc.

181. Names of substances or materials, such as *wine, sugar, iron, gold*, are generally used only in the singular.

When used in the plural, as *wines, brandies, sugars*, etc., the words mean different *kinds* of wine, brandy, etc.

182. Compound nouns generally add the sign of the plural to the principal word. Three cases may be distinguished:

1. Compounds of a noun and a modifying word or phrase, add the sign of the plural to the noun; as, *courts-martial, fathers-in-law, sons-in-law.*

2. When the parts have become so nearly allied in meaning that the meaning is incomplete until the whole is known, the sign of the plural is added at the end; as, *handfuls, rose-trees, four-per-cents, major-generals, attorney-generals.*

3. A few compounds of two nouns inflect both parts; as, *men-servants, knights-templars.*

183. A noun modified by a numeral often omits the sign of the plural; as, *two brace of birds, a two-foot rule, sixty head of cattle.*

EXERCISE 26.—*Make a list in column form of the singular nouns mentioned in* §**165–182**, *and then write opposite to each its plural form.*

EXERCISE 27.—*Make sentences in which the two meanings of each of the plurals of the nouns mentioned in* §**178**, *will be displayed.*

GENDER.

184. Living beings are either of the male sex or of the female sex. Things without life have no distinction of sex—are sexless.

185. DEFINITION.—**Gender** is that form or use of a word by which it denotes sex.

186. To the three classes into which all things are divided with respect to sex, correspond three genders:

Things.	*Words.*
Of male sex,	Masculine gender.
Of female sex,	Feminine gender.
Sexless,	Neuter gender.

187. DEFINITION.—The **masculine gender** is that form or use of a word which denotes the male sex.

188. DEFINITION.—The **feminine gender** is that form or use of a word which denotes the female sex.

189. DEFINITION.—The **neuter gender** is that form or use of a word which denotes the absence of sex.

The word *gender* comes from the Latin word *genus*, meaning *kind* or *sort*.

The word *neuter* properly means *neither; i. e.*, neither masculine nor feminine.

Father, son, king, bull, James, are nouns of the masculine gender.

Mother, daughter, queen, cow, Jane, are nouns of the feminine gender.

Rock, stone, tree, house, Boston, are nouns of the neuter gender.

190. The names of things whose sex is not taken into account, as of very young children and many animals, are sometimes regarded as of the neuter gender. Thus, we speak of *The babe and its toys; The fish and its eggs.*

191. Names that may be applied to persons of either sex, as, *parent, friend, servant;* and in the case of animals names that do not indicate sex, as, *bird, swan, dove, bear,* etc., are sometimes spoken of as being of **common gender.**

But if there is any thing in the sentence to indicate sex, the noun should be regarded as of the masculine or the feminine gender. Thus, in the sentence, *The parent loves her children,* the pronoun *her* clearly shows that the noun *parent* is of the feminine gender.

The nouns *man* and *mankind* are often used to denote all human beings.

192. Things without life are often, particularly in poetry, spoken of as being of the male or the female sex. They are then said to be personified, and their names are regarded, if implying strength, power, or violence, as masculine; if implying gentleness, beauty, or peace, as feminine.

The *sun* is often spoken of as masculine; the *moon*, a *ship*, or a *balloon*, as feminine.

> A thousand years their cloudy wings expand
> Around me, and a dying glory smiles
> O'er the fair times, when many a subject land
> Looked to the winged Lion's marble piles
> Where *Venice sat in state, throned on her hundred isles.*
>
> —LORD BYRON.

193. The gender of nouns is shown in three ways:

1. By using different words for the masculine and the feminine. The more important examples are:

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
bachelor	spinster	king	queen
boy	girl	lord	lady
brother	sister	monk	nun
drake	duck	nephew	niece
earl	countess	ram	ewe
father	mother	sir	madam
gander	goose	sloven	slut (or slattern)
hart	roe	son	daughter
horse	mare	uncle	aunt
husband	wife	wizard	witch

This method of distinguishing gender depends altogether on the meaning of words, and is not, properly speaking, an inflection.

2. By the use of different
ess, *trix*, *ine*, *a*, *en*, *ster*, add
form the feminine.

(*a*) Sometimes *ess*, which is the
to the masculine without other ch

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
baron	baroness
count	countess
deacon	deaconess
heir	heiress
host	hostess

(*b*) Sometimes the final syllab
form is merged in the feminine te

abbot	abbess
actor	actress
benefactor	benefactress
duke	duchess
emperor	empress
enchanter	enchantress
governor	governess

(*c*) The feminine suffix *trix* is
rowed from the Latin language:

Sultana, from *Sultan*; *Infanta*, from *Infante*; *Signor* *Signor*.

(*f*) The suffixes *en* and *ster* come down to us fr English, and are now found unchanged in only two *vixen* and *spinster*.

(*g*) A few words, such as *songstress* and *seamstres* the use of both the old suffix *ster* and the modern t tion *ess*.

The suffix *er* forms *widower*, from *widow*.

3. By putting before a noun of the co gender a word whose gender we know; as, *h* *she-goat*; *man-servant*, *maid-servant*.

194. Among good writers of the present d tendency is to omit distinctively feminine infle whenever it is not important to mark distinct sex. Thus, we speak of a lady as the *auth* the *authoress*, of a book; as a *singer*, not a *stress*; as a *lecturer*, not a *lecturess*; as a *cha* not a *chairwoman*, of a meeting.

Case.

195. A noun may serve several uses or pu

4. An **independent element.**

For once, upon a raw and gusty day,
The troubled ***Tiber*** *chafing with her shores,*
Cæsar said to me, etc.—SHAKESPEARE.

5. The **object complement.**

He could foretell the ***weather*** *at a word,*
He knew the ***haunt*** *of every beast and bird.*
—J. R. LOWELL.

6. The **object** of a preposition.

The vine still clings to the moldering ***wall,***
But at every ***gust*** *the dead leaves fall,*
And the day is dark and dreary.—LONGFELLOW.

7. The **subject** in an infinitive phrase.

He besought ***Hercules*** *to help him.*

8. The equivalent of an **adverbial phrase.**

The book is worth five ***dollars.***
The fish weighed three ***pounds.***

9. A modifier indicating possession; as, *my* ***father's*** *house.*

10. A modifier explaining or describing another noun; as, *Paul, the* ***apostle;*** *Plato, the* ***philosopher.***

196. These uses, because they indicate the relation or *case* in which a noun stands to other words of a sentence, are called **cases.**

197. DEFINITION.—**Case** is that form or use of a noun by which its relation to other words in a sentence is denoted.

198. Some centuries ago the English language had inflections to indicate five different cases. Now

we have only three cases, the *nominative*, *possessive*, and *objective;* and only one of these, the possessive, is marked by inflection. There is now no difference of form for the nominative and objective cases.

199. DEFINITION.—The **nominative case** is the use of the noun in the relation of subject of a verb, of predicate complement, of address, or of an independent element.

***President Lincoln** was assassinated. **Edison** is an **inventor**. **James**, where have you been? **The moon** having risen, we set out.*

200. When used to name the person or thing addressed, the noun is in the **nominative by address**; when used independently, it is in the **nominative absolute.**

201. DEFINITION.—The **possessive case** of a noun is that form of it which denotes the relation of ownership.

***King Arthur's** sword. The **soldiers'** home.*

A noun in the possessive always modifies another noun, expressed or understood. The relation between the two nouns is sometimes one of pure ownership; as, *John's umbrella.* More frequently, however, the noun in the possessive case is used merely to limit or define the other noun, and does not necessarily indicate ownership; as, ***Men's** passions; the **river's** brink.*

202. In the singular number, the possessive case is formed by adding to the nominative form the letter *s* preceded by an apostrophe (’); as, *John, John's; man, man's.*

203. The apostrophe alone is added when too many hissing sounds would come together; as, *Moses' law, for conscience' sake.* It is correct, however, to say *Burns's poems, Moses's law;* and, if there is doubt, the rule should be followed.

Words of more than two syllables often take the apostrophe alone; as, *Demosthenes' orations; Euripides' plays.*

204. In the plural, when the noun ends in *s*, the apostrophe alone is added; as, *ladies' gloves; foxes' holes; birds' eggs.*

When the noun does not end in *s*, the apostrophe and *s* are used; as, *men's hats; women's bonnets.*

205. The Anglo-Saxon inflection to mark the possessive (or genitive) case was *es.* The apostrophe marks the fact that the vowel has been dropped. The unchanged Anglo-Saxon inflection may still be seen in *Wednesday,* which is a contraction for *Wodnes-dœg.*

206. In compound nouns the sign of the possessive is added to the last word only; as, *the heir-at-law's right.*

The same rule is followed when there are two or more separate names, if joint possession is indicated; as, *Robertson, Smith, & Co.'s office; William, James, and Mary's uncle.*

But where the possession is several, the sign of the possessive must be repeated with each noun; as, *Grant's and Lee's forces met in the Wilderness. The poem is neither Bryant's nor Whittier's.*

207. Constructions such as *His brother's death, the Duke of Clarence* (Sir Thomas More), are not now used. We should say, *The death of his brother, the Duke of Clarence.*

It is, however, allowable to say, "I bought the book at Thompson the bookseller's"; or, "I bought the book at Thompson's, the bookseller's"; or, "I bought the book at Thompson's, the bookseller."

The peculiar idiom, *This is a play of Shakespeare's,* is ex-

plained as signifying *a play of Shakespeare's plays;* that is, *one of the plays written by Shakespeare.* Those who regard this explanation as correct, distinguish *a bust of Cicero,* that is, *a bust representing Cicero,* from *a bust of Cicero's,* meaning *one of the busts in the possession of Cicero.* Professor Rushton believes that the idiom has arisen "from a mixture of two constructions"—a possessive case and an adjective phrase introduced by the preposition *of,* frequently used in modern English as a substitute for the possessive case.

208. The possessive inflection is rarely used except with nouns denoting persons, animals, and personified objects: *Johnson's store, the dog's head, the moon's face;* but it is not usual to say, *the book's leaves,* or *the house's roof:* better, *the leaves of the book, the roof of the house.*

209. DEFINITION.—The **objective case** of a noun is the use of the noun as object of a transitive verb or of a preposition, as the subject of an infinitive, or as the equivalent of an adverbial phrase.

The curfew tolls the ***knell*** *of parting* ***day.***
The teacher advised the ***boy*** *to return.*
A train, five ***cars*** *long, passed the depot.*

The nouns, *knell* and *day,* are the objects respectively of the verb *tolls* and of the preposition *of. Boy* is the subject of the infinitive *to return,* and the whole phrase, *the boy to return,* is the object of the verb *advised. Cars* is equivalent to an adverbial phrase, *by five cars,* modifying the adjective *long.*

A noun, or the equivalent of a noun, with a governing preposition, forms a phrase, which may be used as the subject or the object of a sentence, or as an adjective or an adverbial modifier. (See **55** and **57**.)

210. When, as in the following sentences, a noun explains the meaning of another noun, the explain-

ing noun is said to be in the same case by **apposition** as the noun explained.

*Arnold, **the traitor,** betrayed his country.*
*I saw Stevenson, **the novelist.***

211. The following are examples of the declension of nouns. (See § **92.**)

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
NOM.	girl	girls	man	men
POSS.	girl's	girls'	man's	men's
OBJ.	girl	girls	man	men
NOM.	lady	ladies	sheep	sheep
POSS.	lady's	ladies'	sheep's	sheep's
OBJ.	lady	ladies	sheep	sheep

PERSON.

212. DEFINITION.—**Person** is the use of a noun that indicates whether it denotes the person *speaking*, the person *spoken to*, or the person or thing *spoken about.*

213. A noun denoting the person that speaks is said to be in the **first person**; as,

*I, **Benjamin Harrison,** do issue this my proclamation.*

214. A noun denoting the person spoken to is said to be in the **second person**; as,

*You, **John,** are wrong.*

215. A noun denoting the person or thing spoken about is said to be in the **third person**; as,

Shakespeare** wrote **plays.** **Washington** was a **surveyor.

216. We can tell the person of a noun only by noticing the context of the sentence in which it is used.

Substitutes for Nouns.

217. Words, phrases, and clauses, not properly nouns, are frequently used as nouns. These substitutes may be:

1. **Pronouns.** (See **219** and following.)

2. **Adjectives.**

Adjectives may be used to denote concrete things; as, *the deep*, meaning *the ocean; the poor*, meaning *poor people; the English*, meaning *the English people*. Or they may have the force of abstract nouns; as when we speak of *the true*, or *the beautiful*, for *truth* and *beauty*.

3. **Adverbs.**

In history we should learn the ***when****, the* ***why****, and the* ***how.***

4. **Noun Phrases.**

To see is to believe.
To be united is to be strong.

5. **Noun Clauses.**

That you have wronged me, *doth appear in this.*
—Shakespeare.

Many facts prove ***that the world is round.***

Parsing the Noun.

218. To parse a noun is to state the following facts regarding it:

I. The **class** to which it belongs.

II. Its **person, number,** and **gender.**

III. Its **case.**

IV. The **reason for its case**; telling either,

1. *Of what verb it is the subject, or predicate complement;*

2. *Of what verb or preposition it is the object;*

3. *If in the possessive, what noun it modifies;*

4. *If in apposition, what noun it explains;*

5. *Or that it is nominative by address, or nominative absolute.*

EXERCISE 28.—*Analyze the following sentences, parse each noun, and point out phrases or clauses used as nouns*

1. The golden ripple on the wall came again.

2. In the lexicon of youth there's no such word as *fail.*

3. Absence of occupation is not rest.

4. No noble human thought, however buried in the dust of ages, can ever come to naught.

5. Our greatest glory is not in never falling, but in rising every time we fall.

6. The lightest wave of influence, set in motion, extends and widens to the eternal shore.

7. The heights by great men reached and kept,
Were not attained by sudden flight;
But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upward in the night.—*Longfellow.*

8. Count that day lost whose low-descending sun
Views from thy hand no worthy action done.

9. Books give to all who will faithfully use them, the society, the spiritual presence, of the best and greatest of our race.

10. The door-step to the temple of wisdom is a knowledge of our own ignorance.

11. The unwearied sun from day to day
Doth his Creator's power display,
And publishes to every land
The work of an Almighty hand.—*Addison.*

12. Do not read too much at a time, stop when you are tired, and always review what you have read.

EXERCISE 29.—*Parse all the nouns in the following selections:*

1. Good name, in man or woman, dear my lord,
Is the immediate jewel of their souls.
Who steals my purse, steals trash; 'tis something, nothing;
'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands;
But he that filches from me my good name,
Robs me of that which not enriches him,
And makes me poor indeed.—*Shakespeare.*

2. It is the greatest courage to be able to bear the imputation of the want of courage.—*Henry Clay.*

3. We live in deeds, not years; in thoughts, not breaths;
In feelings, not in figures on a dial.—*Bailey.*

4. If a man empties his purse into his head, no one can take it away from him. An investment in knowledge always pays the best interest.—*Benjamin Franklin.*

5. "The sea," cried the miller, "is the greatest thing God made. That is where all the water in the world runs down into a great salt lake. There it lies as flat as my hand, and as innocent-like as a child; but they do say when the wind blows it gets up into water-mountains bigger than any of ours, and swallows down great ships bigger than our mill, and makes such a roaring that you can hear it miles away upon the land. There are great fish in it five times bigger than a bull, and one old serpent as long as our river and as old as all the world, with whiskers like a man, and a crown of silver on her head." —*Robert Louis Stevenson.*

THE PRONOUN.

219. DEFINITION.—A **pronoun** is a word that denotes persons or things without naming them.

See § 29, and work again Exercise 5.

220. The noun and the pronoun agree in that their grammatical functions in a sentence are the same.

They differ in that a noun is a name, whereas a pronoun is a substitute for a name.

221. Pronouns have the same *properties* as nouns, *person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*.

222. The noun to which a pronoun refers, or for which it stands, is called its **antecedent**.

The word *antecedent* means *going before*. Generally the noun to which the pronoun refers, or for which it stands, precedes the pronoun. It frequently happens, however, that the noun to which the pronoun refers follows the pronoun as in § 213, or is not mentioned at all, as when we say of a person who has just left, ***He is gone***. But in all cases the idea of the person or thing referred to is supposed to be present in the mind of the speaker, and to be easily understood by the hearer.

Classes and Inflections.

223. Pronouns may be divided into five classes:

I.	Personal.	*I, thou, you, we, they,* etc.
II.	Interrogative.	*who? which? what?*
III.	Relative.	*who, which, that, what.*
IV.	Demonstrative.	*this, that, these, those.*
V.	Indefinite.	*one, some, each,* etc.

Personal Pronouns.

224. The word *person* once meant an actor's part in a play. As in plays, so in conversation, there are the speaker, the listener, and the person or thing talked about. Pronouns that by their form enable us to distinguish the **person** or thing in each of these three relations, are called **personal pronouns.**

225. Personal pronouns are divided into two classes:

1. **Simple Personal Pronouns**; as, *I*, *you*, *we*.

2. **Compound Personal Pronouns**; as, *myself*, *ourselves*, *themselves*.

226. Personal pronouns have different forms for the three persons. (See § **212**.)

227. The pronouns of the **first person** are *I*, with its plural *we*; and *myself*, *ourselves*.

228. The pronouns of the **second person** are *thou*, with its plural *ye* or *you*; and *thyself*, *yourself*, *yourselves*.

229. The pronouns of the **third person** are *he*, *she*, and *it*, with their plural *they*; and *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, and *themselves*.

230. The simple personal pronoun of the first person is inflected for number and case but not for gender, because the sex of the person speaking is always supposed to be known.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	I	we
Poss.	my, mine	our, ours
Obj.	me	us

I is always written as a capital letter.

231. In the expression *methinks*, *me* is the remnant of an old Anglo-Saxon inflection called the *dative* case, and *thinks* comes from an old verb, *thincan*, to seem. It means, "It seems to me." Our verb *think* comes from a verb *thencan*, to think.

Methinks I see in my mind a noble and puissant nation.
—MILTON.

232. Properly speaking, the pronoun *I* can not have a plural. The plural *we* denotes the speaker and one or more for whom he speaks. It may mean, for instance, *you* and *I*, *my father* and *I*, *my school-fellows* and *I*.

233. When persons other than the person speaking are mentioned, it is proper to put the pronoun denoting the speaker last; as, *John and I*.

234. The plural *we* is used in the following special cases:

1. In the editorials of newspapers: as, *We are of opinion*, etc. *It seems to us*, etc

2. In speaking for humanity generally:

*Strong purposes **our** minds possess,*
__Our__ hearts affections fill,
__We__ toil and earn, __we__ seek and learn,
And thou descendest still.
—ARTHUR HUGH CLOUGH.

3. In foreign countries, sovereigns generally use the plural form in issuing their proclamations; as, ***We**, the Emperor of Germany*, etc.

235. The simple personal pronoun of the second person is inflected for number and case but not for gender, because the sex of the person addressed is supposed to be known by the speaker.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
NOM.	thou	ye, you
Poss.	thy, thine	your, yours
OBJ.	thee	ye, you

236. The plural forms *you*, *your*, *yours*, are now used for purposes of address, both in the singular and in the plural, ex-

cept by members of the Society of Friends, who still address one another in the singular by *thou*, *thy*, *thine*, and *thee*.

Thou was formerly used in address as a term of endearment; it was also used to denote familiarity, and so came to imply contempt.

If ***thou thouest*** *him some thrice, it shall not be amiss.*—SHAKESPEARE.

Except by members of the Society of Friends, *thou* is now used only in the following cases:

1. In the worship of the Almighty: *Hallowed be* ***thy*** *name.*

2. In poetry:

Hail to ***thee*** (a skylark), *blithe spirit—*
Bird ***thou*** *never wert—*
That from heaven or near it
Pourest ***thy*** *full heart*
In profuse strains of unpremeditated art.
—SHELLEY.

237. *Ye* is now used only in appeals and exclamations found in poetry and in elevated prose; as, ***Ye*** *crags and peaks!*

Nor you, ***ye*** *proud, impute to them the fault.*—GRAY.

238. The pronoun of the third person is inflected in the singular for number, case, and gender; in the plural, for number and case, while gender is learned from the context:

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. F. N*
NOM.	he	she	it	they
Poss.	his	her	its	their
OBJ.	him	her	it	them

He and *she* are used for personified objects. (See § **192.**)

It stands for the name of a human being or an animal when sex is not thought of, as well as for a thing without life.

Light the lamp and bring ***it*** *here. Tell the child that* ***it*** *must stop crying.*

239. Dr. Bain distinguishes between the backward and the forward reference of the pronoun *it*.

This pronoun may refer *back* to a noun, as in the foregoing examples.

Or to an infinitive phrase used as a noun; as, *To resist your acts was necessary, as* ***it*** (namely, *to resist your acts*) *was just.*

Or to a clause; as, *I have done the state some service, and they know* ***it;*** which means that they know the fact that *I have done the state some service.*

Again, the pronoun *it* may refer *forward* to a noun, a phrase, or a clause; as,

It *is horrible—****this crime.***
It *is healthy* ***to walk.***
It *is probable* ***that the day will be fine.***

Sometimes the reference is quite indefinite, as in the expressions: ***It*** *rains. How is* ***it*** *with me? We roughed* ***it*** *on our journey.* We must suppose that there is something in the mind of the speaker not fully expressed.

240. *Its* is a modern form. The old neuter possessive was *his*, which was in constant use up to the seventeenth century, and is to be found in King James' translation of the Bible:

Thou shalt make a candlestick of pure gold: . . . . ***his*** *shaft, and* ***his*** *branches,* ***his*** *bowls,* ***his*** *knobs, and* ***his*** *flowers shall be of the same.*—EXOD. xxv. 31.

> *In such a time as this it is not meet*
> *That every nice offence should bear* ***his*** *comment.*
>
> —SHAKESPEARE.

By Shakespeare the uninflected form *it* is sometimes used for the possessive:

Go to ***it*** *grandam, child . . . and* ***it*** *grandam will give it a plum.*—SHAKESPEARE.

241. The forms *my*, *thy*, *her*, *his*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are used to modify nouns directly: ***Your*** *fault is great.* ***Our*** *money is invested.* ***Their*** *land is well cultivated.*

242. The forms *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, and sometimes *his* and *hers*, though possessive in form, have come to be used only in the nominative and objective cases. They are in reality substitutes for a noun and its possessive modifier: *My hat is new,* ***yours*** (your hat) *is old. The fault is* ***yours.*** *The money is* ***ours.*** *The land is* ***theirs.*** *I have* ***his,*** *he has* ***mine.*** ***Theirs*** *have increased,* ***ours*** *have decreased.*

243. The parsing of the pronouns given in the last example should be as follows:

My is a **personal pronoun,** in the *first person, singular number, possessive case,* and modifies the noun *hat.*

Yours is a **personal pronoun,** *second person, plural number, possessive* in form, but used in the *nominative case* as subject of the verb *is.* It is a substitute for the words *your hat.*

244. In the idiomatic expression, *This is a book of mine, of mine* is an adjective phrase modifying book. *Mine* may be parsed as a personal pronoun, possessive in form, governed in the objective case by *of.* Some grammarians explain this construction by supplying an ellipsis: "This is a book of my books." But it would be difficult to explain in this way such expressions as, *This heart of mine, that soul of thine.* The idiom probably arose from the mixture of two constructions—a pure possessive and an adjective phrase. (See § **207.**)

245. Poets and orators occasionally use *mine* and *thine* instead of *my* and *thy* before a word beginning with a vowel, to heighten the effect.

Thine anguish will not let thee sleep.—TENNYSON.
Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord.

At one time this was the prevalent usage:

Shall I not take mine ease in mine inn, but I shall have my pocket picked?—SHAKESPEARE.

246. The compound personal pronouns are:

Singular.	*Plural.*
myself	ourselves
thyself	yourselves
himself	themselves
herself	
itself	

247. These forms are used only in the nominative and objective cases; never in the possessive.

248. The uses of the compound personal pronouns are two: 1, **Reflexive**; 2, **Emphatic.**

249. The reflexive use, indicating that the actor becomes the object of his own action, is seen in the following:

I know myself now.—SHAKESPEARE.
Love thyself last.—*Ibid.*
He that wrongs his friend wrongs himself more.—TENNYSON.
Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps itself.—SHAKESPEARE.

250. The emphatic use is seen in such expressions as, *I myself saw the deed.*

Tennyson employs *myself* in both ways in the following line: *And I myself sometimes despise myself.*

PARSING.

251. A personal pronoun is parsed as a noun is parsed. (See § **218.**)

EXERCISE 30.—*Parse all the personal pronouns in the illustrative sentences found in* §§ **234, 236, 237, 243, 249,** *and* **250.**

EXERCISE 31.—*Parse all the personal pronouns in Exercises 28 and 29.*

QUESTIONS.

Wherein do a noun and a pronoun agree? Wherein do they differ? What are some of the grammatical functions of nouns and pronouns?

What are the properties of pronouns?

What is the noun, to which a pronoun refers, called? Give a sentence in which the antecedent does not precede the pronoun.

Classify pronouns. Why are the personal pronouns so called?

Name the personal pronouns of the first person. Of the second person. Of the third person.

Why are the personal pronouns of the first and second persons not inflected for gender?

Explain the expression *methinks.*

What does the plural form *we* denote? What is the meaning in the lines quoted in § 234?

Quote lines that show the use of *thou* and *ye* in poetry.

Distinguish and illustrate the backward and forward use of *it.*

State and illustrate the history of *its.*

How are the forms *my, thy*, etc., and *mine, thine*, etc., used? Explain the construction, *This book of mine.*

Make sentences showing the reflexive and the emphatic uses of the compound personal pronouns.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

252. DEFINITION.—An **interrogative pronoun** is a pronoun used in asking questions.

253. The interrogative pronouns are *who, which, what*, and *whether.*

***Who** hath believed our report, and to **whom** is the arm of the Lord revealed?*—BIBLE.

***What** is sweeter than honey? **What** is stronger than a lion?*—BIBLE.

***Which** of you by taking thought can add one cubit to his stature?*—BIBLE.

254. *Who* refers only to human beings, and to personified objects, and is thus declined:

	Singular.	*Plural.*
NOM.	who	who
POSS.	whose	whose
OBJ.	whom	whom

255. *Who* and *whom* are always, and *whose* occasionally used alone. *Whose*, like the possessive cases of personal pronouns, is generally joined to a noun as a modifier.

***Who** told you so? From **whom** did you get the book? **Whose** umbrella did he take? This is mine, **whose** is that?*

256. Between *who* and *which* there is a distinction in meaning. *Who* asks a question in a general way; as, ***Who** calls so loud?* meaning who *of all persons*. *Which* inquires for a particular individual from a group or class.

Which (of the two) *is the natural man*
*And **which** the spirit? **Who** deciphers them?*
—SHAKESPEARE.

257. *Which* is used in the nominative and objective cases, either alone or as a modifier of a noun, for either number and for any gender.

***Which** was it?*
***Which** of you told me?*
***Which** will you have?*

Which book did he choose?
Which numbers did she select?

The word *which* comes from the Anglo-Saxon, *hwilc*, contracted from *hwa-lic, what-like, of what kind?*

258. *What* may be used either alone or joined to a noun. When used alone, it is singular and neuter; when used with a noun, the noun may be of any gender and either number.

What does it matter? What do you want?
Wherefore rejoice? What conquest brings he home?
What tributaries follow him to Rome?—SHAKESPEARE.

What king, going to war against another king, sitteth not down first and consulteth?—BIBLE.

259. *What* is often used to introduce an exclamation; as,

What dignity, what beauty, in this change
From mild to angry, and from sad to gay!
—WORDSWORTH.

What is sometimes used as an interjection to express surprise; as,

Eh! how! what! Captain, did you write the letter then?—SHERIDAN.

260. *Whether* is equivalent to *which of two?* It is now generally used as an adverb. In older English it occurs frequently as an interrogative pronoun; as,

Whether of them twain did the will of his father?—BIBLE.

Relative Pronouns.

261. Definition.—A *relative pronoun* is a pronoun that relates to an antecedent and serves to connect clauses.

The distinguishing mark of a relative pronoun is that it can not form the subject or the object of a simple sentence, but is employed to introduce a clause. By some a relative pronoun is called a **conjunctive pronoun**, because it has the power of a conjunction as well as that of a pronoun. In the sentence, *The dog dropped the bone, **which** then fell into the water, which* is equivalent in meaning to *and it.*

262. The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *what*, with the compound forms *whoso*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*. *As* and *but* are occasionally found as relative pronouns.

263. *Who*, *which*, and *what* were originally interrogative pronouns. Then they came to be used indefinitely in the sense of *some person* or *thing*, especially after the conjunctions *if* and *as*, as in the expression, *As **who** should say*, etc., meaning, *As if **some one** should say.* Finally, they came to be used as relatives. *That*, originally a demonstrative pronoun, became a relative before any of the others.

264. *Who* and *which* are declined as follows:

	Singular and Plural.	*Singular and Plural.*
Nom.	who	which
Poss.	whose	whose
Obj.	whom	which

That and *what* are not inflected to indicate case.

265. *Who* is now used only for persons, and in personification; *which*, for animals and things without life. *That* may be used for persons, animals, and things.

The letter being folded was delivered to the squire, and by him delivered to the messenger, ***who*** *waited without.*—SIR WALTER SCOTT.

There is a vast number of absurd and mischievous fallacies, ***which*** *pass readily in the world for sense and virtue, while in truth they tend only to fortify error and encourage crime.*—SYDNEY SMITH.

Blessed is the man ***that*** *walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly.*—BIBLE.

Wake, wake! all ye ***that*** *sleep.*—LONGFELLOW.

The songs and fables ***that*** *are come from father to son.*—ADDISON.

266. *That* is to be preferred to *who* and *which* in the following cases:

1. When the antecedent embraces both persons and things:

The soldiers and cannon ***that*** *I saw.*

2. As a general rule, *who* or *which* is to be used when its clause introduces a new fact about the antecedent; *that* is to be preferred when the clause is dependent, and limits or defines the antecedent.

A convenient test to decide whether it is better to use *who* or *which*, or *that*, is suggested by Dr. Abbott: "When using the relative pronoun, use *who* and *which* when the meaning is *and he, it*, etc., *for he, it*, etc. In other cases use *that*, if euphony allows."

I heard this from the inspector, ***who*** *(and he) heard it from the guard* ***that*** *traveled with the train.*

Fetch me all the books ***that*** *lie on the table, and also the pamphlets,* ***which*** *(and those) you will find on the floor.*

This rule, it must be admitted, is not generally observed, even by the best modern authors. It was followed, however, up to the beginning of the present century; and there is a tendency among writers of the present day to return to it because of its clearness and convenience. It covers the specific rules given by most grammarians to use *that* after an adjective in the superlative degree, etc.

Dr. Abbott notes the following exceptions:

1. When the antecedent is already restricted by some expression, *e.g.* by a possessive case, modern English uses *who* instead of *that* in a restrictive clause; as,

His friends from the city, ***whom*** *he was not expecting, called at his office.*

2. If the relative is separated from its verb and from its antecedent, *who* or *which* is preferable to *that.*

There are many persons ***who,*** *though unscrupulous, are commonly good-tempered, and* ***who,*** *if not strongly incited by self-interest, are ready, for the most part, to think of the interest of their neighbors.*

3. If the antecedent is modified by *that,* the relative must not be *that.* Addison ridicules such language as,

That *remark* ***that*** *I made yesterday is not* ***that that*** *I said* ***that*** *I regretted* ***that*** *I had made.*

4. *That,* as a relative, can not be preceded by a preposition, and hence, throws the preposition to the end of the clause. *This is the rule* ***that*** *I adhere to* is perfectly correct; but when the preposition has more than one syllable, and may be mistaken for an adverb, the construction sounds harsh. It is better to say, *This is the mark beyond* ***which*** *I jumped,* than *This is the mark* ***that*** *I jumped beyond.*

5. After indefinite pronouns modern English prefers *who*.

There are many (*others, several, those*) ***who*** *can testify, etc.*

267. *Whose* is used for persons, for lower animals, and even for things without life, and always to modify the meaning of a noun.

On a rock, ***whose*** *haughty brow,*
Frowns o'er old Conway's foaming tide.—GRAY.

How can we praise the verse ***whose*** *music flows*
With solemn cadence and majestic close,
Pure as the dew that filters through the rose?
—O. W. HOLMES.

It is more common, however, especially in prose, to substitute ***of which*** for *whose* when the antecedent denotes something without life.

Society . . . . has great reason to rejoice when a class, ***of which*** *the influence is moral and intellectual, rises to ascendency.*—MACAULAY.

268. *Which* is now used only for the lower animals and things without life. Formerly it was used for persons, as in the Lord's Prayer: *Our Father* ***which*** *art in Heaven.*

269. *Which* is frequently used as an adjective; as,

Which *things are an allegory.*—BIBLE.

In this case, it refers back to a number of incidents already related, and modifies the word *things*

Occasionally, the antecedent is repeated for the sake of clearness.

He offered no defense for the ridiculous fable of the pigeon; ***which*** *pigeon* (not which fable), *on the contrary, he represented,* etc.—DE QUINCEY.

270. In Shakespeare, *the which*, used to distinguish between two or more possible antecedents, is common.

The better part of valor is discretion; in ***the which*** *better part I have saved my life.*

271. *What* is always neuter, and is used only in the nominative and objective cases. Its antecedent is never expressed. In meaning, it is equivalent to *that which* or *the thing which.*

NOMINATIVE CASE: ***What*** *is one man's meat is another man's poison.*

OBJECTIVE CASE: ***What*** *I have written I have written.*

The student must consider carefully in determining the case of *what*. In the first sentence, the clause *what is one man's meat* is the subject of the second *is*, and *What* is the subject of the first *is*. In the second sentence, *What I have written* is a noun clause and the object of the second *have written*. *What* is the object of the first *have written*.

272. In older English we find the antecedent expressed, as in the sentence,

That what *we have we prize not to the worth.*

—SHAKESPEARE.

273. In poetry and elevated prose, *what* is occasionally found as an adjective:

What *time the splendor of the setting sun*
Lay beautiful on Snowdon's sovereign brow.

—WORDSWORTH.

274. *As* is used as a relative pronoun after *such* and *same:*

Nature ever faithful is
To ***such as*** *trust her faithfulness.*

Tears, ***such as*** *angels weep, burst forth.*—MILTON.

275. The compounds *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*; *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whichsoever*, *whatsoever*, are generally used, like *what*, without an antecedent.

Whosoever is the only one declined:

NOM.	whosoever
Poss.	whosesoever
OBJ.	whomsoever

The forms with *so* are rarely used in modern English.

These compounds all have an indefinite or general meaning.

***Whoso** eats thereof forthwith attains wisdom.*—MILTON.

(*Whoso* = *every one who.*)

*I think myself beholden **whoever** shows me my mistakes.*—LOCKE.

(*Whoever* = *no matter who.*)

276. The relative is sometimes omitted when it is the object of a transitive verb; as,

The book I purchased = *The book **that** I purchased.*

Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king, he would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies.—SHAKESPEARE.

Here we must supply *with which* after *zeal;* but such a construction as that above is hardly allowable in modern English, except in poetry.

In poetry the relative is sometimes omitted when it is the subject of a verb; as,

'Tis distance (that) *lends enchantment to the view.*—CAMPBELL.

277. If the antecedent is a personal pronoun, it is often omitted; as,

***Who** steals my purse, steals trash* = *He who,* etc.

278. When *who*, *which*, and *what* are used in subordinate clauses, care must be taken to determine whether they are

relatives, or whether they are interrogative pronouns. To determine this question in any given case, Professor Rushton suggests the following test: "*Turn the sentence into a question. If the dependent clause gives the answer to such a question, the pronoun is an interrogative;*" as,

I asked ***who*** *was there.*
QUESTION.—*What did you ask?*
ANSWER.—*Who was there?*
They inquired ***what*** *he was going to do.*
QUESTION.—*What did they inquire?*
ANSWER.—*What was he going to do?*

279. The person, number, and gender of a relative pronoun are the same as the person, number, and gender of its antecedent.

280. The antecedent may be a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, or a clause.

We join ourselves to no ***party that*** *does not carry the flag and keep step to the music of the Union.*—CHOATE.

To ***him who*** *in the love of Nature holds*
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language.—BRYANT.

We are bound ***to obey all the Divine commands, which*** *we can not do without Divine aid.*

Homer is remarkably concise, which *renders him lively and agreeable.*—BLAIR'S RHETORIC.

Here the antecedents are *party*, *him*, *to obey all the Divine commands*, and the fact that *Homer is concise*.

281. Occasionally *but* is found as a relative pronoun.

There is not a wife in the west country,
But *has heard of the well of St. Keyne.*—SOUTHEY.

282. Clauses introduced by relative pronouns are of various kinds:

1. Co-ordinate with the clause containing the antecedent, and with it, forming a compound sentence. A relative clause is of this kind when the relative pronoun means *and he, it,* etc., *but he, it,* etc.; as, *The crow dropped the cheese,* ***which*** (= and it) *the fox immediately snapped up. Yesterday I met my old school-fellow,* ***whom*** (= and him) *I recognized at once.*

Although some authors regard sentences like the foregoing as complex, yet they are undoubtedly compound, and there is excellent authority for this view.

2. Adjective, when the relative clause is used to define, limit, or, in other words, to modify a noun or its equivalent. (For the use of *who, which,* and *that* in restrictive clauses, see § **266.**) As, *Have you ever heard of Ethan Allen,* ***who*** *captured Ticonderoga? The man* ***that*** *hath no music in himself is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils.*

3. Noun. A relative clause used as a substitute for a noun is often introduced by *what;* as, ***What*** *the ignorant think of grammar is of no consequence.* Here, *What the ignorant think of grammar* is the subject of *is.*

Within a relative clause, a parenthetical clause is sometimes introduced; as, *We met the Colonel and his wife, who, we thought, were very agreeable people.* This is equivalent to *We met the Colonel and his wife,* ***and*** *we thought* ***they*** *were very agreeable people.* The sentence is compound, and the relative clause is a noun clause, object of the predicate verb *thought.*

283. In parsing an interrogative or a relative pronoun, state,

1. The **antecedent.**
2. The **person, number,** and **gender.**
3. The **case.**
4. The **reason** for the case: of what verb it is the subject, etc.

EXERCISE 32.—*In the following excerpts point out the clauses introduced by relative pronouns, state whether they are* ***noun*** *or* ***adjective*** *clauses, and parse each of the relative pronouns:*

1. There is no creature with which man has surrounded himself that seems so much like a product of civilization, so much like the result of development in special lines and in special fields, as the honey-bee.—*Burroughs.*

2. Katrina Van Tassel was withal a little of a coquette, as might be perceived even in her dress, which was a mixture of ancient and modern fashions, as most suited to set off her charms.—*Irving.*

3. Who is the happy warrior? Who is he
That every man in arms should wish to be!
It is the generous spirit who, when brought
Among the tasks of real life, hath wrought
Upon the plan that pleased his boyish thought.
Whose high endeavors are an inward light
That makes the path before him always bright;
Who with a natural instinct to discern
What knowledge can perform is diligent to learn;
Abides by this resolve and stops not there,
But makes his moral being his prime care.
—*Wordsworth.*

4. What surprised me most was the sound of my own voice, which I had never before heard at a declamatory pitch, and which impressed me as belonging to some other person, who—and not myself—would be responsible for the speech: a prodigious consolation and encouragement under the circumstances.—*Hawthorne.*

QUESTIONS.

Wherein do a personal pronoun and a relative pronoun agree? Wherein do they differ?

Wherein do an interrogative pronoun and a relative pronoun agree? Wherein do they differ? When they are used in dependent clauses, how can you distinguish between *who*, *which*, and *what* as relatives and as interrogative pronouns?

Distinguish the use of *who*, *which*, and *that*, as regards the gender of the antecedent.

What is the general rule with regard to the use of the relative pronoun in co-ordinate and restrictive clauses? Under what circumstances are *who* and *which* to be preferred to *that* in restrictive clauses?

State with regard to each of the illustrative sentences in § 280, whether it is compound or complex, and give a reason in each case.

Demonstrative Pronouns.

284. Definition.—A **demonstrative pronoun** is a pronoun used to point out that to which it refers.

285. The demonstrative pronouns are *this* with its plural *these*, and *that* with its plural *those*.

286. Grammarians differ greatly about the classification of these words. Some call them *pronouns;* some, *adjectives;* some, *adjective pronouns;* and others, *pronominal adjectives.* In this book they will be called *demonstrative pronouns* when they stand alone, and *adjectives* when they are used to modify the meanings of nouns. Some grammarians include *yon* and *yonder* among demonstrative pronouns, but it is perhaps better to regard them as adjectives.

287. Demonstrative pronouns are used under the following conditions:

1. When they introduce or specify some person or object, *this* referring to the nearer, *that* to the more distant.

__This__ is my book.
Is __that__ your cane?
Are __these__ your gloves?
__Those__ are my friends.

2. When they have a backward reference and are equivalent to *the one . . . . the other; this* referring

to the latter of two things mentioned, *that* to the former.

Some place their bliss in action, some in ease,
***Those** call it pleasure, and contentment **these**.*—POPE.

. . . . reason raise o'er instinct as you can
*In **this** 'tis God directs, in **that** 'tis man.*—POPE.

3. When *that* or *those* is used to prevent the repetition of a preceding noun; as,

*The castle of Sterling is such another as **that** of Edinburgh.* —SMOLLETT.

*The mercantile buildings of New York are finer than **those** of London.*

4. When *this* or *that* refers to a word, phrase, or clause going before; as,

*He had great store of knowledge. **This** he used to the greatest possible advantage.*

*To be or not to be, **that** is the question.*

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

288. DEFINITION.—An **indefinite pronoun** is a pronoun that does not denote any particular object.

289. The indefinite pronouns are *one*, *none*, *some*, *any*, *aught*, *naught*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *other*, *else*, *sundry*, *several*, *certain*, *all*, with various compounds.

290. Some of these words are used as pronouns; others, as adjectives; most of them, in both ways. When used as pronouns, they are called **indefinite**

pronouns; when used to modify the meanings of nouns, they are **adjectives.**

291. *One* is simply the numeral *one* with derived meanings. It is used both as a pronoun and as an adjective. As a pronoun, it has a plural *ones* and a possessive case *one's*. Its principal meanings are as follows:

1. As denoting people in general; as,

***One** can say to **one's** friend the things that stand in need of pardon, and at the same time be sure of it.*—POPE.

The reflexive forms *one's self* and *oneself* are used with the same meaning.

2. To avoid the repetition of a noun already used; as, *You seem to be a close observer, sir.—Necessity has made me* ***one.***

3. As correlative with *other*, to distinguish two different persons; as, *Two men went up into the Temple to pray;* ***the one*** *a Pharisee, and* ***the other*** *a publican.*—BIBLE.

4. As equivalent to *person*, *creature*, or *being;* as, *Take heed that ye despise not one of these little* ***ones.***—BIBLE.

292. *Any one*, *some one*, *no one*, *each one*, *either one*, *neither one*, *every one*, *the one*, etc., may be regarded as compounds of *one*, and, in parsing, should be treated as single words.

293. *None*, derived from the Anglo-Saxon *ne*, not, and *an*, one, means strictly *not one.* It is used only

as a pronoun, and should be always singular, though occasionally it is found in good authors in the plural. Its derived form *no* is used as an adjective.

Heed not though ***none*** *should call thee fair.*—WORDSWORTH.

Terms of peace were ***none*** *vouchsafed.*—MILTON.

Other hope had she ***none.***—LONGFELLOW.

She had ***no*** *bonnet on her head.*—DICKENS.

294. *Some* is used both as a pronoun and as an adjective.

As a pronoun it is used both in the singular and in the plural. In the singular it usually implies quantity.

Of the grain, ***some*** *was ripe and* ***some*** *was not.*

Some *of his skill he taught to me.*—SIR WALTER SCOTT

Some *said one thing, and* ***some*** *said another.*

295. *Any* is used as a pronoun and as an adjective. With a singular noun, it generally implies quantity; with a plural noun, number. Used in a negative sentence, it excludes all.

Who is here so base, that would be a bondman? If ***any,*** *speak; for him have I offended.*—SHAKESPEARE.

He never had ***any*** *influence. He has not received* ***any*** *letters.*

296. *Aught*, and the negative form *naught*, are equivalent respectively to *anything* and *nothing*, and are used as pronouns; as,

Nothing extenuate,
Nor set down ***aught*** *in malice.*—SHAKESPEARE.

If ***naught*** *in loveliness compare,*
With what thou art to me.—WORDSWORTH.

297. *Each* and *every* are sometimes called **distributive pronouns,** because they refer to the members of a class. Note the distinction in meaning:

Each means all the individuals of a class taken *separately; every* means all the individuals of a class taken *collectively.*

Each may refer to two, or to more than two; *every* always implies more than two.

Each is used both as a pronoun and as an adjective; *every,* as adjective only; as,

That ***each*** *who seems a separate whole should move* ***his*** *rounds.*—TENNYSON.

Every *soldier was on duty, except the cavalry.*

298. The expressions *each other, every other, no other, one another,* etc., are generally regarded as **compound indefinite pronouns;** as, *They did not speak to* ***each other.*** *I know* ***no other.***

299. *Other* is used as an adjective in such phrases as *the other day, some other book.*

It is a common error to substitute the adverb *otherwise* for *other;* as, *He had no love for literature, poetical or* ***other,***—not *otherwise.*

300. Used as an indefinite pronoun, *other* has a possessive *other's* and a plural *others;* as,

How well I have performed my part, let ***others*** *judge.*
The ***other's*** *judgment is too severe.*

301. *Another* is to be distinguished from *the other.* The latter means *the second of two;* the former, *one of any number more than two.*

302. *Either* and *neither*, sometimes called *alternative pronouns*, mean respectively *one of the two*, and *not one of the two*. They are used both as pronouns and as adjectives, and have the possessive forms *either's* and *neither's*.

Truth may lie on both sides, on ***either*** *side, or on* ***neither.*** —CARLYLE.

So parted they as ***either's*** *way led.* ***Neither's*** *claim was just.*

Occasionally we find *either* used for *each;* as, *On* ***either*** *side is level fen.*—CRABBE.

It is better to use *each* for *one* and *other; either,* for *one* or *other;* as, ***Each*** *claimed to be right;* ***either*** *might have been mistaken.*

303. *Either* or *neither* should never be used to refer to more than two objects. For *neither* in the following sentence substitute *no one: Only three persons saw the act, and* ***neither*** *of them would testify.*

304. *Certain* is used both as a pronoun and as an adjective; as,

To hunt the boar with ***certain*** *of his friends.*—SHAKESPEARE.

A ***certain*** *man planted a vineyard.*—BIBLE.

305. *Same* is used with *the* to prevent the repetition of the noun to which it refers, and is then an indefinite pronoun; as,

He that abideth in me, and I in him, ***the same*** *bringeth forth much fruit.*—JOHN XV. 5.

This usage is now generally confined to legal phraseology.

306. *Such* is commonly used as an adjective. occasionally as a pronoun:

***Such** harmony is in immortal souls.*—SHAKESPEARE.

*Mere strength of understanding would have made him **such** in any age.*—DE QUINCEY.

Usage justifies the use of *such* with another adjective, though some grammarians have pronounced it wrong. Milton speaks of ***such** worthy attempts.*

307. *So* is often used with the force of an indefinite pronoun, when we might expect *such;* as,

We think our fathers fools, so wise we grow;
*Our wiser sons, no doubt, will think us **so**.*—POPE.

EXERCISE 33.—*Parse fully each pronoun in the following selections:*

1. Shall I ask the brave soldier who fights by my side
In the cause of mankind, if our creeds agree?—*Moore.*

2. Apologies only count for that which they do not alter.—*Disraeli.*

3. They rested there, escaped awhile
From cares that wear the life away.—*Whittier*

4. Kind as a mother herself, she touched his cheeks with her hands.

5. What is noble?—that which places
Truth in its enfranchised will,
Leaving steps, like angel traces,
That mankind may follow still.
E'en though scorn's malignant glances
Prove him poorest of his clan,
He's the noble—who advances
Freedom, and the Cause of Man!—*Swain.*

6. The other weapon with which Thoreau conquered all obstacles in science was patience. He knew how to sit immova-

ble—a part of the rock he rested on—until the bird, the reptile, the fish, which had retired from him, should come back and resume its habits,—nay, moved by curiosity, should come to him and watch him.—*Emerson.*

7. Gorgeous she entered the sunlight which gathered her up in a flame,
While straight in her open carriage, she to the hospital came.—*Mrs. Browning.*

8. He giveth little who gives but tears,
He giveth his best who aids and cheers,
He does well in the forest wild
Who slays the monster and saves the child;
But he does better, and merits more
Who drives the wolf from the poor man's door.
—*Trowbridge.*

9. Her presence lends its warmth and health
To all who come before it.
If woman lost us Eden, such
As she alone restore it.—*Whittier.*

10. That power of endurance, that quickness of apprehension, that calmness of judgment, which enable man to seize the opportunities that others lose, and persist in the lines of conduct in which others fail—are these not talent?—are they not in the present state of the world, among the most distinguished and influential of mental gifts?—*Ruskin.*

EXERCISE 34.—Make sentences containing *this, that; these, those; one's, ones; each other, one another; either, neither; the one, the other.*

THE ADJECTIVE.

308. DEFINITION.—An **adjective** is a word used to aid in denoting more exactly what is named by a noun, or the equivalent of a noun.

(Work again Exercise 3.)

309. An adjective may be used in either of two ways: 1. To modify the meaning of a noun or its equivalent directly; as, *A* ***red*** *apple. A man,* ***wise*** *and* ***good,*** *was elected mayor.* 2. As the complement of a verb of incomplete predication; as, *The apple is* ***red.*** *The boy has become* ***wise.*** In the latter case the adjective modifies the meaning of the subject noun, or its equivalent, indirectly.

Classes.

310. Adjectives are divided into three principal classes:

I. Adjectives of **quality**; as, *good, bad, fine, coarse, thick, American, English, French, Homeric,* etc.

II. Adjectives of **quantity**; as, *much, little, enough, all, one, two, three,* etc.

III. **Demonstrative** adjectives; as, *A, an, the, your, first, second, tenth, this, that, these, those,* etc.

311. Adjectives of quality denote the kind of thing that the noun names, or the class to which it belongs. Adjectives derived from proper nouns, as, *American, German, French,* are called proper adjectives, and should always be written with capital letters.

312. Adjectives of quantity tell either *how many* or *how much* we mean of that which the noun names. They include,

1. The cardinal numeral adjectives: *one, two, three,* etc.

The words *pair, dozen, hundred, thousand, million,* are sometimes nouns, and may be used in the plural.

One, two, etc., may also be used as nouns, as in the expression, *There are three **twos** in **six**.*

2. Words of indefinite meaning: *all, half, many, few, much, little, several, enough.*

Most of these words may also be used as nouns; as, ***All** is lost. **Much** remains to be done. **Enough** has been said.*

In such expressions as, *A great **many** men, Full **many a** flower,* the modifying words, *A great many* and *full many a,* are best parsed as **phrase adjectives.**

Little, as in, *to make much out of **little,*** means *hardly any thing. A little,* as in, *you have **a little** money,* means *some.*

In the same way *few* means *hardly any;* and *a few* means *some;* as,

*I have **a few** things against thee.*—BIBLE.

***Few** of their ships were taken.*—SMOLLETT.

313. Demonstrative adjectives include:

I. The **Article.** There are two articles: *an,* sometimes contracted into *a,* called the **indefinite article;** and *the,* called the **definite article.**

II. Ordinal numeral adjectives; as, *first, second, third,* to point out which one of a series.

III. Words like *yon, yonder; this, that; these, those;* when used as adjectives.

314. The indefinite article *an,* derived from the numeral *one,* is used in speaking of any one of the things for which the noun is the name; as, ***an** orange, **an** old man.*

The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound; as, ***an** apple, **an** heir.*

An drops the *n* and becomes *a* before a word beginning with a consonant sound, and with *u* when it has the force of *yu;* as, ***a** man, **a** horse, **a** wire, **a** year, **a** university.*

315. Some writers, though by no means all, use *an* before vocal *h*, where the accent falls on the second syllable of the word; as, ***an** historical event.*

316. Where several objects are mentioned, each to be considered separately, the indefinite article should be repeated before each; as,

> *Leave not **a** foot of verse, **a** foot of stone,*
> *A page, **a** grave, that they can call their own.*—POPE.

317. But where two or more nouns refer to the same person or thing, the indefinite article should precede only the first. ***A** king and **a** priest* refers to two different men. ***A** king and priest* means that one man holds both offices. By the same rule, ***A** black and **a** white horse*, means two different horses; ***a** black and white horse*, means that both colors are to be found on the same horse.

318. As the indefinite article points out one thing of a kind or class, it should never be used with a word denoting a whole kind or class. We should never say, *A silk-worm is a kind of **a** caterpillar*, but, *A silk-worm is a kind of caterpillar.*

319. Where a noun preceded by the indefinite article has two or more adjective modifiers, all of

the same general meaning, the article should be prefixed only to the first; as,

*There is about the whole book **a** vehement, contentious, replying manner.*

But when a marked distinction or emphasis is to be noted, the article should be repeated before each adjective; as,

He went like one that hath been stunned,
And is of sense forlorn;
***A** sadder and **a** wiser man*
He rose the morrow morn.—COLERIDGE.

320. The definite article *the* has several uses:

1. To point out a particular object, or class of objects; as,

***The** man that hath no music in himself,*
Nor is not moved with concord of sweet sounds,
Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils.
—SHAKESPEARE.

2. To point out some object previously known or mentioned; as,

*I can not agree with **the** editorial I read this morning.*

3. To call attention to a proper noun, naming some distinguished person or thing; as,

*Shakespeare was **the** Homer of our dramatic literature.*

We speak also of ***the** Smiths*, ***the** Macdonalds*, as members of the same clan or family; and of ***the** Hudson*, ***the** Alps*, ***the** Mediterranean.*

4. To indicate a whole class; as in the names of nations, ***the** French*, ***the** Spanish*, ***the** Scot*, ***the***

Mexican; in singular nouns used as terms in the natural sciences, ***the*** *geranium*, ***the*** *cat*, ***the*** *bear;* in the names of professions, as, ***the*** *church*, ***the*** *bar*, ***the*** *army.*

5. With an adjective to form an equivalent for an abstract noun; as, ***the*** *true*, ***the*** *beautiful.*

321. When two or more nouns in apposition, or when two or more adjectives, modify the meaning of the same noun, the definite article, except for the sake of emphasis, is placed only before the first; as,

I received a visit from Mr. Richardson, ***the*** *broker and real estate agent.*

If parts allure thee, think how Bacon shined,
The *wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind.*—POPE.

When the adjectives do not describe one and the same thing, the article must be repeated if the noun is in the singular, or it must be placed before the first adjective only, if the noun is in the plural; as, ***The*** *first and second chapters of Genesis*, or, ***The*** *first and* ***the*** *second chapter of Genesis.*

INFLECTION.

322. Adjectives are not inflected to express gender, person, or case; but qualitative and a few quantitative adjectives undergo changes to express the degree or relative amount of the quality or the quantity. These changes are called **degrees of comparison.**

323. There are three degrees of comparison: the **positive**, the **comparative**, and the **superlative.**

324. DEFINITION.—The **positive degree** of an adjective is the form of it that *implies* the comparison of one thing or group of things with all the rest of the class.

*A **tall** tree. A **good** man. A **fast** train.*

325. DEFINITION.—The **comparative degree** of an adjective is the form of it that is used to denote that one thing or class of things has more or less of a certain quality than another thing or class of things.

*John is **stronger** than James.*
*Oranges are **less sour** than lemons.*

326. DEFINITION.—The **superlative degree** of an adjective is the form of it that is used to denote that one of three or more things or classes of things, has the highest or the lowest degree of a certain quality.

*Jupiter is the **largest** of the planets.*
*Diamonds are the **least perishable** of precious stones.*

327. The following rules are given for forming the comparative and superlative degrees from the positive.

1. Adjectives of *one* syllable, and many adjectives of *two* syllables usually add *er* to the positive to form the comparative, and *est* to form the superlative.

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
bright	brighter	brightest
happy	happier	happiest
able	abler	ablest
mellow	mellower	mellowest
genteel	genteeler	genteelest

The following orthographical changes should be noted:

(*a*) If the positive ends in *e* silent, only *r* and *st* are added:

brave	braver	bravest

(*b*) Adjectives ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the final consonant before *er* and *est*.

red	redder	reddest
big	bigger	biggest
hot	hotter	hottest

(*c*) If the positive ends in *y*, preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i* before *er* and *est*.

pretty	prettier	prettiest

2. Adjectives of more than two syllables usually form the comparative and superlative degrees by prefixing *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*, to the simple form of the adjective.

beautiful	*more* beautiful	*most* beautiful
cheerful	*less* cheerful	*least* cheerful

328. This last is not a true inflection, but a substitute for inflection. Some writers prefer the forms in *er* and *est* even for very long words. Thomas Carlyle uses *fruitfuller*, *powerfullest*, *inflammablest*. It is largely a matter of euphony.

In the older writers, double comparatives and superlatives, such as *more braver*, *most unkindest*, are used. These are now regarded as incorrect.

329. Some adjectives, few in number but of very frequent occurrence, are irregular in their comparison. The most important are given below:

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
good	better	best
bad, ill, or evil	worse	worst
little	less	least
much	more	most
many	more	most
late	later, latter	latest, last
far	farther	farthest
near	nearer	nearest
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
forth, *adv.*	further	furthest
fore	former	foremost, first
hind	hinder	hindmost
in, *adv.*	inner	inmost, innermost
out, *adv.*	outer, utter	outmost, outermost, utmost, uttermost
neath, *prep.*	nether	nethermost
up, *prep.*	upper	upmost, uppermost
nigh	nigher	nighest, next
top, *noun*		topmost
rath, rathe	rather	

The double comparatives *worser* and *lesser* are now seldom used.

Older and *oldest* are used of both persons and things; *elder* and *eldest* of persons only; as, *My* ***eldest*** *sister.*

Former, latter, elder, upper, inner, are now used principally to mark relations of space or time, seldom as comparatives.

330. Adjectives that in themselves express the highest degree of a quality, or that have no shades of meaning, are not compared; as, *supreme, extreme, eternal, infallible, perpendicular, dead.*

331. The *comparative* degree of an adjective is used when *two* things are compared; the *superlative*, when *more than two* are compared.

Of ***two*** *such lessons, why forget*
The ***nobler*** *and the* ***manlier*** *one?*—BYRON.

This, though a good rule for beginners, is not always adhered to by writers of authority. Thackeray writes,

This court had been the ***most magnificent*** *of the* ***two.***

332. When a comparative is used with *than*, the thing compared must always be excluded from the class of things with which it is compared.

Brazil is larger than all the countries of South America, should read, *Brazil is larger than all the* ***other,*** etc.

333. When a superlative is used, the class that furnishes the objects of comparison, and that is introduced by *of*, should always include the thing compared.

Brutus was the noblest Roman ***of them all.***

This rule is violated by Milton in,

Adam, the goodliest man of men since born
His sons; the fairest of her daughters, Eve.

334. The noun or a pronoun modified by an adjective is sometimes understood; as,

When I buy books I always buy the best (books).

SUBSTITUTES FOR THE ADJECTIVE.

335. The principal use of an adjective is to separate the thing we wish to talk about from other

things having the same name. This purpose, however, may be served by other words or groups of words:

1. A noun or a pronoun in the posssessive case; as,

*A **father's** love = **fatherly** love.*
*My brother gave me **his** purse.*

2. A noun in apposition; as,

*The conductor, **Robert Spear,** told me the story.*

3. A noun used as an adjective; as,

*A **gold** crown; the **cotton** manufactory.*

4. A prepositional phrase; as,

*A man **of much learning**; a story **in three chapters.***

5. A verbal phrase; as,

*Workmen **hired to dig**; accidents, **resulting in death**; bread **to eat.***

6. An adjective clause; as,

*The house **that Jack built.** Bunyan was the man **that wrote the "Pilgrim's Progress."***

Parsing the Adjective.

In parsing an adjective, tell,

I. The **class** to which it belongs.

II. The **degree of comparison.**

III. The **noun** or the **pronoun** whose meaning is **modified.**

EXERCISE 35.—*In the following selections, parse the adjectives; point out all adjective phrases and clauses; and tell what each modifies:*

1. There is no kind of achievement you could make in the world that is equal to perfect health.—*Carlyle.*

2. Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime,
Where the rage of the vulture, the love of the turtle,
Now melt into sorrow, now madden to crime?—*Byron.*

3. In this country, where the rough and ready understanding of the people is sure at last to be the controlling power, a profound common sense is the best genius for statesmanship.—*Lowell.*

4. However good you may be, you have faults; however dull you may be, you can find out what some of them are; and however slight they may be, you had better make some—not too painful, but patient—effort to get quit of them.—*J. Ruskin.*

5. I had read of the soothing companionship of the forest, the pleasure of the pathless woods; but I thought, as I stumbled along in the dismal actuality, that if ever I got out of it, I would write a letter to the newspapers exposing the whole thing.—*C. D. Warner.*

6. The rocks under water took on the most exquisite shades—purple and malachite and brown; the barnacles clung to them; the long sea-weeds in half a dozen varieties, some in vivid colors, swept over them, flowing with the restless tide, like the long locks of a drowned woman's hair.—*C. D. Warner.*

7. I sometimes sit and pity Noah; but even he had this advantage over all succeeding navigators, that, wherever he landed, he was sure to get no ill news from home. He should be canonized as the patron saint of newspaper correspondents, being the only man who ever had the very latest authentic intelligence from everywhere.—*Lowell.*

QUESTIONS.

Wherein do an adjective and an adverb agree? Wherein do they differ? Give examples of each of the ways in which an adjective may be used. Form proper adjectives from *Spain*, *Britain*, *Austria*, *Canada*, *Greece*, *Italy*, *Turkey*, *Scotland*, *Ireland*, *Mexico*, *Holland*, *Germany*, *Egypt*.

Make sentences containing the words *hundred*, *thousand*, and *million*, used in the plural.

Make sentences containing the expressions, *little*, *a little*, *few*, *a few*.

When should *an* be used? When should *a* be used?

Give the rule for the use of the indefinite article before a series of nouns.

Make sentences illustrating the different uses of the definite article.

Define each of the degrees of comparison.

Distinguish between *older* and *elder* as to meaning.

Give the rule for the use of the comparative followed by *than*, and make a sentence to illustrate it.

Give the rule for the use of the superlative followed by *of*, and make a sentence to illustrate it.

Point out the errors in the lines from Milton quoted in § 333.

THE VERB.

336. DEFINITION.—A **verb** is a word used to say something about some person or thing.

(Read paragraph 21, and work Exercise 4, again.)

The word that stands for the person or thing about which something is said, is a noun or a pronoun in the nominative case, and is called, in analysis, the *subject noun* or the *subject pronoun*. As has already been stated, a phrase or a clause may take the place of a noun. It is often convenient to speak of a subject noun, pronoun, phrase, or clause, when considered apart from modifiers, simply as the *subject* of the verb.

A verb may tell us with regard to that about which something is said that it does something, as, *The sun* ***rises;*** or that it is in some state, as, *My lady* ***sleeps;*** or that it has something done to it, as, *The prize* ***is won.***

337. With regard to their subjects, grammarians distinguish **personal** and **impersonal** verbs.

A **personal verb** is a verb that has a determinate subject; as,

Edison *invented the phonograph.*

What is your ***ailment?*** ***It*** *is bronchitis.*

An **impersonal verb** has no determinate subject. The subject, not clearly present to the mind of the speaker, is indicated by the neuter pronoun *it;* as,

It ***rains.*** *It* ***snows.*** *How dark it* ***grows!*** *How* ***fares*** *it with you?*

Me ***lists*** = it pleases me, and ***Methinks*** = it seems to me, are impersonal verbs. (See § **231.**)

Classes of Verbs.

338. According to their uses in sentences, verbs are divided into two great classes: **Transitive** and **Intransitive.**

339. Definition.—A **transitive verb** is a verb expressing action that is received by some person or thing:

A rolling stone ***gathers*** *no moss.*
A soft answer ***turneth away*** *wrath.*—Bible.
Vanity Fair ***was written*** *by Thackeray.*

The word *transitive* comes from the Latin *transire, to pass over.* The action is supposed to pass from the agent or actor to the person or thing acted upon.

The person or thing acted upon is expressed, when the verb is in the active voice (see **353**), by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, called, in analysis, the *object noun* or *pronoun.* A phrase or clause may take the place of a noun. Some verbs appear to take two objects; as, *I told* ***him*** *the* ***news.*** Here, *news* is the **object** and *him* is the equivalent of an adverbial phrase, *to him,* and may be parsed as an adverbial objective.

340. Definition.—An **intransitive verb** is a verb expressing being or state, or action not received by any person or thing:

Water ***is*** *a fluid. The babe* ***sleeps.*** *The sun* ***shines.***

341. A verb that is usually transitive may become intransitive, and an intransitive verb, transitive:

1. Some verbs are used both transitively and intransitively; as,

Transitive.	*Intransitive.*
The boy ***flies*** *a kite.*	*The eagle* ***flies.***
The driver ***walked*** *his horse.*	*The man* ***walked.***
The girl ***ran*** *a needle into her finger.*	*The horse* ***ran*** *away.*
He ***speaks*** *many languages.*	*He* ***speaks*** *slowly.*

In all cases, the sense must determine whether the verb is transitive or intransitive.

2. A verb, otherwise transitive, becomes intransitive when the action is done to the agent, and a reflexive pronoun is omitted; as,

Transitive.	*Intransitive.*
The sea ***broke*** *the ship to pieces.*	*The sea* ***broke*** (itself) *on the rocks.*
The cook ***turns*** *the meat.*	*The needle* ***turns*** (itself) *to the pole.*
The fishermen ***spread*** *their nets in the sun.*	*The clouds* ***spread*** (themselves) *over the sky.*

3. Some verbs, usually transitive, may be made intransitive by adding predicate adjectives; as,

Transitive.	*Intransitive.*
The butcher ***cuts*** *the meat.*	*The meat* ***cuts*** *tough.*
The boy ***is eating*** *the cakes.*	*The cakes* ***eat*** *short and crisp.*
She ***tastes*** *the milk.*	*The milk* ***tastes*** *sour.*

4. A verb, usually intransitive, may be made transitive by the addition of a preposition, either separately or in composition; as,

Intransitive.	*Transitive.*
He ***laughed.***	*He* ***laughed*** *at me.*
He ***looked.***	*He* ***overlooked*** *the work.*

5. Some verbs, usually intransitive, become transitive, when followed by nouns of like meaning; as,

Intransitive.	*Transitive.*
He ***died.***	*He* ***died*** *the* ***death*** *of the righteous.*
She ***sleeps.***	*She* ***sleeps*** *the* ***sleep*** *of the innocent.*
The boy ***ran.***	*The boy* ***ran*** *a* ***race.***

342. Some verbs appear to be used transitively, when such is not the case; as in the sentence, *He ran a mile.* Here *mile* is not the object of *ran*, but an adverbial objective, or part of an adverbial phrase, a preposition being understood: *He ran for a mile.*

343. Some intransitive verbs may form the predicates of sentences without the help of any other word or words; as,

The baby ***creeps.*** *The rose* ***blooms.***

344. Some other intransitive verbs can not form the predicates of sentences without the addition of a *predicate complement.* Such verbs are called **incomplete intransitives.** (See § **49.**)

The complement may be a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a phrase, or a clause.

345. Incomplete intransitive verbs may express:

1. The identity of two persons or things.

I ***am*** *the* ***author*** *of the book.*
He ***is*** *my* ***brother.***

2. The assertion that a quality belongs to a person or thing:

Gold ***is*** ***heavy.***
The ***prisoner*** ***is*** ***guilty.***

3. A presumed identity; as,

He seems, looks, becomes, ***wealthy.***
He seems, looks, becomes, a ***rich man.***

346. In all cases where a verb takes after it an adjective that modifies the subject, or a noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing as the subject, it is an incomplete intransitive verb; as,

*The rose **smells** sweet.*
*The milk **tastes** sour.*

347. Some verbs in the passive voice (see **354**) are used as incomplete intransitives; as,

He was considered a gentleman.
He was elected President.

348. Some grammarians call an incomplete intransitive verb a *copula*, because it *couples*, so to speak, two parts of speech. The *complement* is also called the *attribute*.

INFLECTIONS.

349. Since the verb is the part of speech used to say something about some person or thing, it is evident that the assertion may be made under various conditions as to the actor and the receiver of the action, the intention of the speaker, the time referred to, the number of persons or things concerned, and the person (grammatical) of the subject.

350. Verbs are inflected to express these various conditions or relations, which are called respectively **voice, mode, tense, number,** and **person.** These are sometimes spoken of as the *properties* of the verb.

Few of these inflections are true inflections. Most of them are made by the use of helping or *auxiliary verbs;* that is, verbs that drop their own meaning for the time being, and aid in expressing the meaning of the principal verb.

Voice.

351. Definition.—**Voice** is the form of a transitive verb that shows whether the subject denotes the actor or the receiver of the action.

352. Only transitive verbs are inflected for voice. They have two voices—the **active** and the **passive.**

353. Definition.—A transitive verb is in the **active voice** when its subject denotes the doer of the action.

Cæsar ***defeated*** *Pompey.*

Here *Cæsar*, the subject of the verb *defeated*, denotes the actor; and, consequently, the verb is said to be in the active voice.

354. Definition.—A transitive verb is in the **passive voice** when its *subject* denotes the receiver of the action.

Pompey ***was defeated*** *by Cæsar.*

Here the subject, *Pompey*, denotes the receiver of the action; and, consequently, the verb, *was defeated*, is in the passive voice.

By studying the foregoing examples, it will be seen that the object of the verb in the active voice becomes the subject when the verb is changed to the passive voice.

When the verb in the active voice is followed by an object and an adverbial objective (see **339**), either one may become the subject of the passive. *I told him the news* may be changed either to *The news was told him*, or to *He was told the news.* In all such sentences as the two examples just given, the noun or pronoun following the verb in the passive voice is in the objective case, and is the equivalent of an adverbial phrase. (See § **209.**)

355. Verbs usually intransitive, when made transitive by the addition of a preposition, take the passive voice; as,

*He **was laughed at** by James.*

356. In English, there are no inflections for the passive voice. It is expressed by prefixing the various parts of the verb *be* to the past participle of the verb.

EXERCISE 36.—*Express the sense of the following sentences by using where possible the passive voice instead of the active:*

1. Fear tied his tongue.
2. Fire once destroyed the city of Chicago.
3. Something attempted, something done,
   Has earned a night's repose.
4. Summer flowers fringe the dusty road with harmless gold
5. Attention held them mute.
6. His eloquence had struck them dumb.
7. Thy sharp lightning, in unpracticed hands,
   Scorches and burns our once serene domain.
8. Each thought of the woman who loved him the best.
9. Once a dream did weave a shade
   O'er my angel-guarded bed.
10. Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
    O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

MODE.

357. DEFINITION.—**Mode,** or **mood,** is a form or use of a verb that indicates the manner in which the action or state is to be regarded.

An action may be regarded as a fact, or as a command, or as merely thought of, or as named after the manner of a noun.

358. Hence we distinguish four modes: 1. *The* **Indicative Mode.** 2. *The* **Imperative Mode.** 3. *The* **Subjunctive Mode.** 4. *The* **Infinitive Mode.**

The forms of the verb in the *indicative*, *subjunctive*, and *imperative* modes, are sometimes called *finite* forms, because they are affected by the person and number of their *subjects*. The term is used to distinguish them from the forms of the *infinitive*, which are not so limited.

359. DEFINITION.—The **indicative mode** is that form or use of a verb by which it expresses a statement or a supposition as a fact, or asks a question.

God ***scatters*** *love on every side*
Truly among his children all.—J. R. LOWELL.

Breathes *there the man with soul so dead*
Who never to himself ***hath said***
This ***is*** *my own, my native land?*
—SIR WALTER SCOTT.

If he ***is*** *wealthy, he* ***is*** *not a gentleman.*

360. DEFINITION.—The **imperative mode** is that form or use of a verb by which it expresses a command, a request, or an exhortation.

Go *away.*
Give *me that book, if you please.*
Go *thou and* ***do*** *likewise.*

As a verb in the imperative mode is always addressed to some one, the subject is the personal pronoun of the second person, generally understood, as in the first two examples given above: ***Go*** (you) *away.* ***Give*** (you) *me.*

361. DEFINITION.—The **subjunctive mode** is that form or use of a verb by which it expresses a state-

ment, or a supposition, not as a fact, but as merely *thought of.*

The word *subjunctive* is derived from the Latin *sub, under,* and *junctus, joined,* and the mode is so called because it is most frequently used in a clause that is joined in a dependent way to a principal clause. Hence, it is called by some grammarians the *conjunctive* mode.

362. A verb in the subjunctive mode is generally, though not always, introduced by one of the conjunctions, *if, though, unless, except, lest, that,* and the like. The conjunction, however, is not a part of the verb, nor is the subjunctive mode always used after one of these conjunctions.

363. The *subjunctive mode* may express:

1. A future event about which we are uncertain:

Though he ***slay*** *me, yet will I trust him.*
Take heed, lest thou ***fall.***

2. A wish:

I wish he ***were*** *here.*
Thy kingdom ***come.***

3. An intention:

The sentence is that you ***be fined*** *ten dollars.*

4. A condition regarded as untrue or as uncertain:

Had *he* ***been killed,*** *it would have been better.*
Should *it* ***rain,*** *I shall not come.*

5. A consequence that is untrue or uncertain because a condition is untrue or uncertain:

Had he followed my advice, he ***would*** *now* ***be rich.***
Should he follow my advice, he ***would become*** *rich.*

364. Three points should be carefully noted by the student:

1. From the fact that a verb is in a conditional clause, it does not necessarily follow that it is in the subjunctive mode. Whenever the condition is regarded as true, the verb is in the indicative mode; as,

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.—*If the earth* ***were*** *flat, men could not sail around it.*

INDICATIVE MODE.—*If the earth* ***is*** *round, men can sail around it.*

In the first sentence the earth's flatness is something merely thought of, not assumed as a fact; in the second, the earth's rotundity is assumed as a fact.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.—*Though the boy's coat* ***were*** *made of silk, he* ***would soil*** *it.*

INDICATIVE MODE.—*Though the boy's coat* ***was*** *made of silk, he* ***soiled*** *it.*

In the first sentence we speak of a possible, in the second, of an actual, coat.

2. A verb in the subjunctive mode is not always preceded by a conjunction expressing doubt or uncertainty. When the conjunction is absent, however, the verb is either placed before its subject; as,

Were I he, I should go;

Or the subject is placed after the first auxiliary, if the verb consists of two or more words; as,

Had *he* ***been*** *prudent, he would now be alive.*

3. The tendency of modern English is to drop

the use of the subjunctive mode, and to substitute the indicative. The tendency is not a good one.

EXERCISE 37.—*Make four sentences, each containing a verb in the indicative mode.*

Make four sentences, each containing a verb in the imperative mode.

Make five sentences, each containing a verb in the subjunctive mode.

EXERCISE 38.—*Give the mode of each verb printed in italics.*

1. Though he *lost* the battle, he did not lose honor.
2. Though he *lose* his life, he will not lose his honor.
3. If thou *go*, see that thou *offend* not.
4. Though you *fail* at first, *try* again.
5. Though William *is* tall, he is young.
6. If he *were* not so tall, less *would be expected* of him.
7. I do beseech ye, if you *bear* me hard,
   Now, whilst your purpled hands *do reek and smoke*,
   Fulfil your pleasure."—SHAKESPEARE.
8. But *were* I Brutus,
   And Brutus Antony, there *were* an Antony
   Would ruffle up your spirits.

INFINITIVE MODE.

365. DEFINITION.—The **infinitive mode** is that form or use of a verb by which action or state is named after the manner of a noun.

We eat ***to live.***
We desire ***to be honored.***

'Tis better ***to have loved*** *and* ***lost,***
Than never ***to have loved*** *at all.*—TENNYSON.

The name *infinitive* (from Latin *in*, *not*, and *finis*, *limit*) signifies that the verb is not inflected to denote *person* and *number*, as are verbs in the other modes.

In only one case is the infinitive form of the verb really a *mode*—that in which it is preceded by a subject, a noun or pronoun in the objective case; as, *He advised* ***him to proceed.*** (See § **195.**) In all other cases, the infinitive is either a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, and might be classed among verbals. (See **370.**)

366. The preposition *to*, though placed before the infinitive when used alone, as, *to have, to love, to speak*, is not a part of the verb, and is generally omitted after the verbs *may, can, shall, will, must, let, dare, do, bid, make, see, hear, feel, need*, etc.; as,

You ***may come.*** *He* ***dared not attempt*** *the journey. You* ***make*** *me* ***think*** *ill of you.*

367. The infinitive mode of a transitive verb retains the function of governing a noun in the objective case, and then becomes part of a phrase; as,

I like ***to hear*** *good* ***music.***

368. A verb in the *infinitive mode* may be used for various purposes in a sentence:

1. As a noun phrase forming the subject.

To climb steep hills *requires slow pace at first.*

—SHAKESPEARE.

2. As a noun phrase forming the object of a verb.

I like ***to walk.***

3. As a noun phrase forming the complement of a verb.

To see is ***to believe.***

4. As part of a noun phrase used as the object of a verb.

The teacher told her scholars ***to sing.***

In this construction the noun or pronoun that precedes the infinitive, is said to be its subject, and is parsed as in the objective case. (See § **195.**)

5. As an adverbial phrase modifying the meaning of a verb, an adverb, or an adjective.

The sower went forth ***to sow.***
I am glad ***to hear this.***

In this construction the infinitive is, by some grammarians, called the **gerundial infinitive.**

6. As an adjective phrase.

Water ***to drink*** *is scarce.*

7. As an adjective phrase forming the complement of a verb.

The governor's authority is ***to be supported.***

369. The infinitive has two forms: as, *to sit* and *to have sat;* and, in the case of transitive verbs, has forms for both the active and the passive voice: as, *to love, to be loved; to have loved, to have been loved.*

EXERCISE 39.—*Give the mode of each verb printed in italics:*

1. The tear-drop who can *blame,*
   Though it *dim* the veteran's aim?
2. *Eat* lest ye *faint.*
3. Except ye *repent,* ye shall all likewise perish.

4. Truth from his lips *prevailed* with double sway,
And fools, who *came* to *scoff*, *remained* to *pray*.
—*Goldsmith.*

5. Hence in a season of calm weather,
Though inland far we *be*,
Our souls *have* sight of that immortal sea
Which *brought* us hither.—*Wordsworth.*

EXERCISE 40.—*Pick out the verbs in the infinitive mode, and tell how each is used:*

1. To obey is better than to be punished.
2. It is useless to inquire.
3. The mother rejoiced to hear of her son's success.
4. I am sorry to hear it.
5. The Colonel ordered the soldiers to march.
6. It is a sin to speak deceitfully.
7. The children had a long lesson to learn.
8. To hesitate is to be lost.
9. To know what is best to do, and how best to do it, is wisdom.
10. I tried to remember what I had read about encounters with bears.—*C. D. Warner.*
11. To rifle a caravan is a crime, though to steal a continent is a glory.
12. That fellow seems to me to possess but one idea, and that is a wrong one.—*S. Johnson.*
13. Foreigners do not feel easy in America, because there are no peasants and underlings here to be humble to them.—*Lowell.*
14. I tried to think what is the best way to kill a bear with a gun, when you are not near enough to club him with the stock.—*C. D. Warner.*
15. The foot is arched longitudinally and transversely, so as to give it elasticity, and thus break the sudden shock when the weight of the body is thrown upon it.—*O. W. Holmes.*
16. Unpracticed he to fawn, or seek for power,
By doctrines fashioned to the varying hour;
Far other aims his heart had learned to prize,
More skilled to raise the wretched than to rise.
—*Goldsmith.*

17. Modern civilization offers no such test to the temper and to personal appearance as this early preparation to meet the inspection of society after a night in the stuffy and luxuriously upholstered tombs of a sleeping-car.—*C. D. Warner.*

VERBALS.

370. There are two forms of the verb that are called **verbals.** They are the **gerund** and the **participle.**

THE GERUND.

371. The **gerund,** or, as it is often called, the **verbal noun,** is formed by adding *ing* to the simple form of the verb, and is almost similar to the infinitive mode in meaning.

372. DEFINITION.—A **gerund** is a verbal used as a noun.

The word *gerund* comes from the Latin *gerere, to carry,* and is so called because the meaning of the verb is *carried on* beyond the modes.

373. The gerund has some of the functions of both noun and verb. It is a noun in that it may be the subject of a verb, or the object of a verb or of a preposition; it belongs to the verb because it is modified by adverbs and adverbial phrases, and, when derived from a transitive verb, governs a noun or pronoun in the objective case.

374. The following are examples of its use:

1. As the subject, or as the complement of a verb.

***Seeing** is believing.*
***Walking** is a healthy exercise.*
***Doing** good is the only certainly happy action of a man's life.*

2. As the object of a verb or of a preposition.

John learns ***drawing.***

True worth is in ***being, not seeming,***
In ***doing*** *each day that goes by*
Some little good, not in ***dreaming***
Of great things to do by and by.

375. The gerunds of *have* and *be* aid in forming compound gerunds.

He is conscious of ***having done*** *a good action.*
Being trusted *makes us honorable.*

376. We find the gerund used in such forms as *a-going, a-milking;* as,

*"I'm going a-****milking****, sir," she said.*
*In the days of Noah, while the ark was a-****preparing****.*—BIBLE.
*Simon Peter said unto them, "I go a-****fishing****."*—BIBLE.

The *a* in these expressions is not the article, but an old preposition, meaning *in* or *on*, which governs the gerund in the objective case. The preposition is probably omitted in the seemingly passive use of the gerund:

The house is now ***building.***

377. We find the gerund also in composition with a noun; as, *walking-stick = a stick for walking; carving-knife = a knife for carving.*

378. The *gerund*, or *verbal noun*, is to be carefully distinguished from two other forms ending in *ing:* (*a*) The participle, which, while retaining some of the functions of the verb, has those of an adjective; (*b*) The abstract common noun denoting action; as,

The ***handling*** *of money pleases some people.*

379. To distinguish between the gerund or verbal noun, and the participle or verbal adjective, is not difficult. It is less easy to distinguish between the gerund and the abstract common noun ending in *ing*. As a general rule, it may be said that when the verbal noun in *ing* is preceded by the article or is followed by *of*, it is an abstract common noun; if it governs an objective case, it is a gerund; as,

ABSTRACT NOUN.—*After the* ***passing*** (= passage) *of the act, the Legislature adjourned.*

GERUND.—*After* ***passing*** *the act, the Legislature adjourned.*

THE PARTICIPLE.

380. DEFINITION.—A **participle** is a verbal adjective.

And children ***coming*** *home from school*
Look in at the open door.—LONGFELLOW.

Up rose old Barbara Frietchie then,
Bowed *with her four-score years and ten.*—WHITTIER.

The word *participle* comes from the Latin *participare, to share, partake*. It is so called because it partakes of the functions of a verb and of an adjective. It is *verbal*, because it is modified by adverbs and their substitutes, and, when derived from a transitive verb, governs an objective case. It is *adjective*, because it modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.

381. This is the mark by which the participle ending in *ing* is to be distinguished from the gerund and abstract common noun: if the word modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun, it is a *participle;* if it is used as a noun, it is a *gerund* or an *abstract common noun.*

PARTICIPLE.—***Firing*** *his gun, the hunter accidentally wounded a little girl.*

GERUND.—***Firing*** *a gun is a dangerous pastime.*

ABSTRACT COMMON NOUN.—*The* ***firing*** *of the cannon was heard a long distance.*

382. The participle has *three forms:*

1. The **present** or **imperfect participle** ending in *ing*, which expresses the action or state as being still incomplete or in progress; as,

> ***Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing,***
> *Onward through life he goes.*—LONGFELLOW.

> *New Morn, her rosy steps in the eastern clime*
> ***Advancing,*** *strewed the earth with orient pearl.*
> —MILTON.

2. The **past participle,** formed in several ways, which expresses the action or state as completed.

> *Something* ***accomplished,*** *something* ***done,***
> *Has earned a night's repose.*—LONGFELLOW.

> *Ye mind me of departed joys,*
> ***Departed*** *never to return.*—BURNS.

3. The **perfect participle,** which expresses action just completed or still continuing in its effects; as,

> ***Having packed*** *his trunk, he was ready to depart.*

383. The past participles of transitive verbs have a passive force; that is, the noun modified is the receiver of an action; as,

> *And he,* ***neglected*** *and* ***oppressed,***
> *Wished to be with them and at rest.*—SCOTT.

384. Participles are often used as adjectives of quality; as,

> *A* ***startling*** *occurrence.* ***Blasted*** *hopes.*

In parsing such expressions, it is better to say *imperfect or past participle used as an adjective of quality.*

385. In forming the imperfect participle by adding *ing* to the simple form of the verb, observe the orthographical rules given in § **131** and § **135.**

EXERCISE 41.—*Note when the form in* **ing** *is a* **gerund,** *when it is a* **participle,** *and when it is an* **abstract noun.**

1. Our united efforts could not prevent his going.
2. Instead of reasoning more forcibly, he talked more loudly.
3. We considered the best methods of raising money; or, more properly speaking, what we could most conveniently sell.
4. Wandering from place to place, she patiently waited her lover.
5. Who has not heard the crying of the children?
6. "Sirrah," replied the spider, "if it were not for breaking an old custom, I should come to teach you better manners."
7. Reading and writing are indispensable in education.
8. He spent hours in correcting and polishing a single couplet.
9. The groaning of prisoners and the clanking of chains were heard.
10. Besides the nets made by spiders to ensnare insects, some species have the power of running out a long thread, which answers the purpose of a balloon in raising them from the ground and carrying them floating a long distance in the air.—*E. S. Morse.*

TENSE.

386. DEFINITION.—**Tenses** are forms of the verb that indicate the time to which the action or state is referred, and also the completeness or incompleteness of the event at that time.

The word *tense* comes from the Latin *tempus, time.*

387. As three divisions of time may be thought of, *time present*, *time past*, and *time future*, so there

are three principal *tenses*—the *present tense*, the *past tense*, and the *future tense*.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Future Tense.*
I walk.	*I walked.*	*I shall walk.*

388. An action or state may be stated with reference to time present, past, or future, in four ways:

1. As **indefinite**; that is, without regard to whether it is complete or incomplete.

I walk. I walked. I shall walk.

2. As **progressive** or **incomplete**:

I am walking. I was walking. I shall be walking.

3. As **perfect** or **complete**:

I have walked. I had walked. I shall have walked.

4. As **continuous up to** or before **some other time mentioned or implied**:

I have been walking. I had been walking. I shall have been walking.

389. These variations of tense may be displayed in tabular form, thus:

TENSE.	INDEFINITE.	PROGRESSIVE OR CONTINUOUS.	PERFECT.	PERFECT PROGRESSIVE.
PRESENT.	I love.	I am loving.	I have loved.	I have been loving.
PAST.	I loved.	I was loving.	I had loved.	I had been loving.
FUTURE.	I shall love.	I shall be loving.	I shall have loved.	I shall have been loving.

Primary Tenses.

390. A tense is present, past, or future, with reference to time; indefinite, progressive, or perfect, with reference to completeness or incompleteness of action. Accordingly, twelve tense forms may be distinguished.

Six of these tenses are usually called **primary tenses**: The **present indefinite**, the **past indefinite**, the **present perfect**, the **past perfect**, the **future indefinite**, the **future perfect**.

391. The *present indefinite* is used in various ways:

1. It states what actually takes place.

I ***sit*** *beneath the elm's protecting shadow,*
Whose graceful form
Shelters *from sunshine warm;*
While far around me, in the heated meadow,
The busy insects ***swarm.***
—James Freeman Clarke.

2. It indicates what is customary.

So when a good man ***dies,***
For years beyond our ken
The light he ***leaves*** *behind him* ***lies***
Upon the paths of men.—Longfellow.

The mountains ***look*** *on Marathon,*
And Marathon ***looks*** *on the sea.*—Byron.

3. It is used for the future when the context shows that future time is referred to, or in the case of events expected immediately; as,

Duncan ***comes*** *here to-night.*—Shakespeare.

. . . *When I* ***am*** *forgotten, as I shall be,*
And ***sleep*** *in dull cold marble, when no mention*
Of me more must be heard of.—SHAKESPEARE.

4. It is sometimes used in describing past events to make the description more vivid; as,

A cloud of smoke ***envelops*** *either host,*
And, all at once, the combatants ***are lost.***—DRYDEN.

5. It is used of an author saying or stating something in his books; as,

Shakespeare ***says:***
"Her voice was ever soft,
Gentle and low; an excellent thing in woman."

The passive form of the *present indefinite* is,

I am taught. I am loved.

392. The *past indefinite tense,* ***I taught, I loved,*** expresses an action occurring before the present, without reference to duration of time; as,

I ***ate*** *a peach yesterday. In the beginning God* ***created*** *the heaven and the earth.*

It is also used to express what was customary at a former period; as,

Much as he (the Indian) ***loved*** *war, the fair and open fight* ***had*** *no charms for him.*—MCMASTER.

393. The *present perfect tense* expresses (1) an action just finished; (2) an action done in a space of time not yet exhausted; (3) something whose consequences still remain:

(1) *I **have sent** the letter; The messenger **has come.*** (2) *It **has rained** all the week* (up to this time); *We **have seen** great events this year.* (3) *I **have been** a great sinner* (meaning I was so in my youth, and now bear the consequences).

The form in the passive voice is,

*I **have been taught.***

394. The *past perfect tense* shows that the action was complete before a certain time or before another action was commenced: ***I had loved, I had taught.***

*Yesterday at three o'clock, I **had completed** my work.*
*Before my arrival, he **had departed.***

The form in the passive voice is,

*I **had been taught, I had been loved.***

395. The *future indefinite tense* expresses an action referred as a whole to future time:

*I **shall teach; I shall love.***

The form in the passive voice is,

*I **shall be taught; I shall be loved.***

396. The *future perfect tense* expresses an action supposed to be complete at some future time:

*I **shall have taught; I shall have loved.***
*In a few years my son **will have completed** his college course.*

The form in the passive voice is,

*I **shall have been taught; I shall have been loved.***

Secondary Tenses.

397. The *progressive forms*, called **secondary tenses**, represent the action as continuous in present, past, or future time:

	Active.	*Passive.*
Present.	I am teaching.	I am being taught.
Present Perfect.	I have been teaching.	———
Past.	I was teaching.	I was being taught.
Past Perfect.	I had been teaching.	———
Future.	I shall or will be teaching.	———
Future Perfect.	I shall or will have been teaching.	———

A verb in the indicative mode has all the tenses.

Complex Forms of Tenses.

398. Complex forms made by the aid of the auxiliary, or helping, verb *do*, are often substituted for the *present* and *past indefinite* tenses, indicative mode; as, *I* ***do write.*** *He* ***did write.*** These are often called **emphatic** forms, because in speaking the stress of the voice is laid upon the auxiliary.

They are most commonly employed, however, in negative and interrogative sentences; as, ***Does*** *he* ***write?*** ***Do*** *I* ***appear*** *cross?* *I* ***do*** *not* ***know*** *you.* *We* ***do*** *not* ***teach*** *Latin.*

Formation of the Tenses.

399. The *present indefinite* is usually the simple form of the verb.

400. The *past indefinite* is formed in two ways:

1. By a change in the body of the word; as, *write, wrote.* Verbs of this kind are called by some grammarians **strong verbs**; by others, **irregular verbs.**

2. By adding *d* or *ed* to the present; as, *love, loved; walk, walked.* By some grammarians these are called **weak verbs**; by others, **regular verbs.**

In a few cases the final *d* has been changed into *t;* as, *sleep, slept.*

401. The *perfect tenses*, except in the progressive form, are formed by means of the indefinite present, past, and future of *have*, followed by the past participle.

402. The *progressive tenses* are formed by the parts of the verb *be*, followed by the imperfect participle.

403. The *future tenses* are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*, followed by the infinitive mode.

404. Care should be taken to use *shall* and *will* correctly.

Shall originally meant to *owe*; as in the words of Chaucer: *That faith I shall* (*I owe*) *to God.* Hence, the word still involves something of the idea of obligation.

Will involves the idea of wish or intention, and is more appropriate in the first person as expressing the choice, intent, or decision of the speaker:

I will speak = It is my intention to speak.

The following rules should be carefully studied:

1. In the first person *will* expresses a resolution or a promise; as,

> *We* ***will*** *be avenged . . . we'll hear him,*
> *We'll follow him,* ***we'll*** *die with him.*
>
> —SHAKESPEARE.

2. In the second and third persons *will* expresses simple futurity:

> *If you visit him, you* ***will*** *find him busy.*
> *I think it* ***will*** *rain to-day.*

3. In the second person in interrogative sentences, *will* anticipates a wish or intention; as,

> ***Will*** *you dine with us to-morrow?*

4. In interrogative sentences, *will* should never be used with the nominative case of the personal pronoun of the first person, because we are always supposed to know our own minds. It is nonsense to ask, ***Will*** *we take a walk?* It is fair to assume that we know whether we have any such intention or not.

5. *Shall* in the first person is used merely to foretell; as,

> *I* ***shall*** *read awhile.*

6. In questions, *shall* with the personal pronoun of the first person marks a simple interrogation; as,

> ***Shall*** *I see him?*

Or asks permission; as,

> ***Shall*** *I read = Do you wish me, or will you permit me to read?*

7. *Shall* in the second and third persons, expresses (*a*) a promise, (*b*) a command, or (*c*) a threat:

(*a*) *You* ***shall*** *have these books to-morrow = I promise to let you have these books to-morrow.*

(*b*) *Thou* ***shalt*** *not steal = I command thee not to steal.*

(*c*) *He* ***shall*** *be punished for this = I threaten or promise to punish him for this.*

The more important of these rules have been summed up in the following verses:

In the first person simply ***shall*** *foretells;*
In ***will*** *a threat or else a promise dwells.*
Shall, *in the second and third, does threat;*
Will, *simply, then, foretells the future feat.*

In modification of the first rule it must be added that if a word denoting willingness is used, *shall* should be used instead of *will*. We say,

I ***shall*** *be* ***happy*** *to accept your invitation;* not, *I* ***will*** *be happy,* etc.

405. The tenses of the *subjunctive mode* are formed in the same manner as the tenses of the *indicative*, except the *future*, which, expressing a future condition or supposition, takes *would*, *should*, or *might* as the auxiliary:

If I ***should strike*** *him, he* ***would fall.***

Would and *should* are the past tenses of *will* and *shall*, and are used, when auxiliaries, according to the same rules. *Might* is the past tense of *may*.

406. The *infinitive mode* has two tenses, the *present* and the *perfect;* as,

to love; to have loved.

407. The *imperative mode* is used in but one tense, the *present*. It is the simple form of the verb used as a command, a request, or an exhortation; as,

***Strike** and **spare** not.*

408. The tenses of the passive voice are formed by the tenses of the verb *to be*, followed by the past participle of the principal verb.

EXERCISE 42.—*Make a list of the verbs in the following sentences, and tell the mode and tense of each:*

1. During the long journey the lady scarcely spoke a word.
2. No longer mourn for me when I am dead.
3. Rejoice with them that do rejoice, and weep with them that weep.
4. When the child was dead, thou didst rise and eat bread.
5. Day dawns upon the mountain side:—
   There, Scotland, lay thy bravest pride.—*Scott.*
6. He had faithfully performed his task.
7. The steamer was going straight for the rocks.
8. That boy shall be made to hold his tongue.
9. When will you see your cousin?
10. "Listen!" said the little man, deigning no reply to this polite inquiry. "I am the king of what you mortals call the Golden River. The shape you saw me in was owing to the malice of a stronger king, from whose enchantments you have this instant freed me. What I have seen of you, and your conduct to your wicked brothers, renders me willing to serve you; therefore, attend to what I tell you. Whoever shall climb to the top of that mountain, from which you see the Golden River issue, and shall cast into the stream at its source three drops of holy water, for him, and for him only, the river shall turn to gold."

NUMBER AND PERSON.

409. A verb is said to *agree* with its subject in number and person; that is, it is said to be *singular*

or *plural*, and *first*, *second*, or *third person*, according to the number and person of its subject.

Observe the following rules:

1. A plural subject takes a verb in the plural, as, *We **are** successful;* a singular subject takes a verb in the singular, as, *I **am** your brother.*

2. When the subject contains two or more nouns joined by *and*, the verb must be plural; as, *Mary and Jane **are** sisters.*

3. When the subject contains two or more singular nouns joined by *or*, *either—or*, or *neither—nor*, the verb must be singular; as, *Either John or James **is** the culprit. Neither the butcher nor the baker **has** called.*

4. A collective noun, when singular in form, may take a verb in the plural if the speaker is thinking of separate things; as, *A herd of cattle **were grazing** in the field.* If, however, the multitude is thought of as one thing, the verb should be in the singular; as, *The herd **was sold** for $2,000.*

We may say either *The committee **reports,*** or *The Committee **report.***

410. In olden times, the verb had several inflections to mark number and person. Now, except in the verb *to be*, there are only two:

1. *Est*, *st*, or *t*, to form the second person singular of the present and past tenses of the indicative mode; as,

PRESENT: *walkest, canst.*
PAST: *spakest, calledst, wast.*

2. *Es* or *s*, and the now little used terminations *eth* or *th*, used to form the third person singular, present tense, of the indicative mode; as,

PRESENT: *calleth, doeth,*
calls, does, searches.

In the tenses of the subjunctive mode, the inflection for the third person singular is omitted altogether; and the inflection

for the second person singular is found only in the forms *shouldst*, *wouldst*, and *wert*.

The second person singular is now used only in poetry and in solemn or pathetic prose (see **236**); as,

Happy season of childhood? . . . . kind Nature, thou *art* to all a bountiful mother; that *visitest* the poor man's hut with auroral radiance; and for thy nursling *hast provided* a soft swathing of Love and infinite Hope, wherein he waxes and slumbers, danced round by sweetest Dreams!—THOS. CARLYLE, *Sartor Resartus*.

411. A verb in the *imperative mode* is used in but one person, the second.

EXERCISE 43.—*Make sentences containing verbs in the following forms:*

1. First person, singular, present, indicative.
2. First person, plural, perfect, indicative.
3. Third person, singular, present, indicative.
4. Third person, plural, past, indicative.
5. Third person, singular, past perfect, indicative.
6. Third person, singular, present, indicative, used interrogatively.
7. Third person, singular, past, used negatively.

EXERCISE 44.—*Tell the mode, tense, person, and number of each verb in the following selections:*

The more we live, more brief appear
Our life's succeeding stages:
A day to childhood seems a year,
And years like passing ages.—*T. Campbell.*

Star that bringest home the bee,
And set'st the weary laborer free!
If any star shed peace, 'tis thou.—*T. Campbell.*

The sun upon the lake is low,
  The wild birds hush their song,
The hills have evening's deepest glow,
  Yet Leonard tarries long.
Now all whom varied toil and care
  From home and love divide,
In the calm sunset may repair
  Each to the loved one's side.—*Sir W. Scott.*

QUESTIONS.

Give the definition of a verb. What is meant by the subject of a verb? In what case is a subject noun or pronoun? What may be substituted for a noun or pronoun as the subject of a verb? Give examples.

What is a *personal* verb? An *impersonal* verb? Give examples.

What is a *transitive* verb? An *intransitive* verb? Give examples.

Give examples of verbs that are usually transitive, being used intransitively.

Give examples of verbs that are usually intransitive, being used transitively.

What are the properties of a verb?

To what class of verbs is *voice* confined? Define *voice. Active voice. Passive voice.*

Define *mode.* What are the four ways in which the action or state denoted by a verb may be regarded? What are the four corresponding modes? Give a definition of each.

What is the important point of difference between the *indicative mode* and the *subjunctive mode?*

Give examples of the five uses of the *subjunctive mode.*

Give examples of the uses of the *infinitive mode.*

In what respect do a *gerund* and a *participle* agree? In what respect do they differ? In what respect do a participle and an adjective agree? In what respect do they differ?

Explain the idiom, *She goes a-milking.*

Give examples of the *gerund* in composition.

Why is the *participle* so called? Give examples of the two forms of the participle.

Define *tense.* What are the three natural divisions of time? What other considerations enter into the classification of tenses?

Enumerate the different uses of the *present* indefinite tense, and give one example of each.

What is the difference in meaning between *I wrote* and *I was writing?* Between *I have written* and *I had written?* Between *I shall write* and *I shall have written?*

What is meant by *strong* and *weak* verbs? What are the other names for these classes of verbs? Give ten examples of each.

How are the *perfect tenses* formed? The progressive tenses? The future tenses? Give examples of each.

What is the original meaning of *shall?* Of *will?* What does *will* express in the *first person?* In the *second* and *third persons?* What does *shall* express in the first person? In the second and third persons? Make sentences containing *shall* and *will* in each of the persons.

What determines the number and person of a verb? What are the inflections that mark number and person?

Conjugation of the Verb.

412. By arranging in an orderly way the verb forms that in the various modes and tenses correspond to the different persons and numbers of subject nouns and pronouns, we have what is called **conjugation.**

413. The present indicative or infinitive, and the past indicative, of any verb, together with its present and past participles, are called its **principal parts,** since one of these parts is found in each of the various forms of that verb.

414. A verb that wants any of these principal parts is a **defective verb**; if any one of these four has two different forms, the verb is a **redundant verb.**

415. A verb is called a **notional verb** when it retains its full meaning; as, *I **write,** I **will*** (decide) *that you should go.*

A verb is called an **auxiliary verb** when it loses its full meaning, and serves merely to help in expressing the meaning of a notional verb; as, *He **will** go.*

In the sentence, *He **will** go, will* does not mean that he decides to go. It merely expresses futurity. In, *I **have** bought*

the house, have loses the meaning of *possess* and is a mere sign of the present perfect tense. The auxiliary verbs are *shall, will, have, be, do, may.*

Conjugation of Auxiliary Verbs.

416. SHALL and WILL.

Indicative Mode.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1. I	shall, will,	1. We	shall, will,
2. Thou	shalt, wilt,	2. You	shall, will,
3. He	shall, will,	3. They	shall, will.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1. I	should, would,	1. We	should, would,
2. Thou	shouldst, wouldst,	2. You	should, would,
3. He	should, would,	3. They	should, would.

Shall and *will*, followed by the infinitive without *to*, form the future tenses in the indicative mode.

Should and *would*, though originally past in meaning, are now used to form the future tenses of the subjunctive mode, particularly when the verb is not preceded by one of the conjunctions expressing a condition, *if*, *though*, etc. (See § **405.**)

When *should* and *would* are used to state facts, they are notional verbs in the indicative mode and are followed by a dependent infinitive; as, *I should like to see you. They would go in bathing.*

Will is also used as a notional verb in the sense of *choose, determine.* It is then conjugated regularly.

417. HAVE.

	PRES.	PAST.	PRES. PART.	PAST PART.
Prin. Parts:	Have.	Had.	Having.	Had.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRES. TENSE.		PAST TENSE.	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. I have,	1. We have,	1. I had,	1. We had,
2. Thou hast,	2. You have,	2. Thou hadst,	2. You had,
3. He has, or hath,	3. They have.	3. He had,	3. They had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

(Generally used after *if*, *that*, *though*, etc.)

PRES. TENSE.		PAST TENSE.	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. I have,	1. We have,	1. I had,	1. We had,
2. Thou have,	2. You have,	2. Thou had,	2. You had,
3. He have,	3. They have.	3. He had,	3. They had.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRES. TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Have (thou).	2. Have (you or ye).

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRES. TENSE.	PERFECT TENSE.
To have.	To have had.

	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT.
PARTICIPLE:	Having.	Had.	Having had.
GERUND:	Having.		Having had.

The verb *have* is both notional and auxiliary.

As a notional verb, meaning *possess*, *hold*, *keep*, it is found in all the modes and tenses.

As an auxiliary verb, its present tense is used to form the present perfect tenses of other verbs, as, *He* ***has*** *succeeded;* its past tense, to form the past perfect tenses, as, *He* ***had*** *succeeded;* its future indefinite tense, to form the future perfect tenses, as, *He* ***will have*** *succeeded;* its present infinitive, to form the perfect infinitive, as, ***To have*** *succeeded;* and its present participle, to form the perfect participle and gerund, as, *Having succeeded.* When it is used as an auxiliary, the original sense of *possessing* no longer appears.

Hast is a contraction for *havest; had*, for *haved; has* and *hath*, for *haves* and *haveth.*

418. BE.

	PRESENT.	PAST.	PRES. PART.	PAST PART.
PRIN. PARTS:	Be,	Was.	Being,	Been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.		PAST TENSE.	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. I am,	1. We are,	1. I was,	1. We were,
2. Thou art,	2. You are,	2. Thou wast,	2. You were,
3. He is,	3. They are.	3. He was,	3. They were.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	2. You have been,
3. He has been,	3. They have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. Thou hadst been,	2. You had been,
3. He had been,	3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall be,	1. We shall be,
2. Thou wilt be,	2. You will be,
3. He will be,	3. They will be;
or,	
1. I will be,	1. We will be,
2. Thou shalt be,	2. You shall be,
3. He shall be,	3. They shall be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have been,	1. We shall have been,
2. Thou wilt have been,	2. You will have been,
3. He will have been,	3. They will have been;
or,	
1. I will have been,	1. We will have been,
2. Thou shalt have been,	2. You shall have been,
3. He shall have been,	3. They shall have been.

Subjunctive Mode.

(Generally used after *if*, *that*, *though*, etc.)

PRESENT TENSE.		PAST TENSE.	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. I be,	1. We be,	1. I were,	1. We were,
2. Thou be,	2. You be,	2. Thou wert,	2. You were,
3. He be,	3. They be.	3. He were,	3. They were.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. Thou have been,	2. You have been,
3. He have been,	3. They have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

The same in form as in the indicative mode.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I {should / would} be,	1. We {should / would} be
2. Thou {shouldst / wouldst} be,	2. You {should / would} be,
3. He {should / would} be,	3. They {should / would} be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I {should / would} have been,	1. We {should / would} have been,
2. Thou {shouldst / wouldst} have been,	2. You {should / would} have been,
3. He {should / would} have been,	3. They {should / would} have been.

Imperative Mode.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2 Be (thou).	2. Be (you or ye).

Infinitive Mode.

PRESENT TENSE.	PERFECT TENSE.
To be.	To have been.

VERBALS.

	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT.
PARTICIPLES:	Being.	Been.	Having been.
GERUNDS:	Being.		Having been.

As an auxiliary the verb *be* is used, in connection with the present participle, in forming the progressive forms of the tenses; and, in connection with the past participle, in forming the tenses of transitive verbs in the passive voice.

EXERCISE 45.—*Write out the conjugation of the verb* **write**, *progressive form, by joining the present participle to the various parts of the verb* **be**.

419. DO.

	PRESENT.	PAST.	PRES. PART.	PAST PART.
PRIN. PARTS:	Do	Did.	Doing.	Done.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I do,	1. We do,
2. Thou dost,	2. You do,
3. He does,	3. They do.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I did,	1. We did,
2. Thou didst,	2. You did,
3. He did,	3. They did.

Do, as a notional verb, is found in all the voices, modes, and tenses.

Do, as an auxiliary verb, has three uses:

1. To form, together with the present infinitive of another verb, equivalents for the indefinite present and past tenses. These equivalents are sometimes used for the sake of emphasis, in which case the stress of the voice in speaking is laid upon the auxiliary; as, *I* ***do*** *see; He* ***did*** *fall; She* ***does*** *succeed.* Frequently, however, they are used merely to improve the sound

of the sentence; as, *Thou* ***dost*** *prefer above all temples the upright heart and pure.*

2. To form equivalents for the indefinite present and past in negative and interrogative sentences; as, *I* ***do*** *not hear you.* ***Do*** *you hear me?* ***Did*** *he not tell you?*

3. To form emphatic imperatives; as, ***Do*** *be still.* ***Do*** *keep quiet.* ***Do*** *have patience.*

In all these expressions *do* is really a transitive verb, and its object is the verb in the infinitive mode; but it is more convenient to parse the auxiliary and the principal verb together as one verb.

The verb after *do* is often omitted; as, *I can not walk as fast as you* ***do*** (walk).

420. MAY.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may,	1. We may,
2. Thou mayst,	2. You may,
3. He may,	3. They may.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might,	1. We might,
2. Thou mightst,	2. You might,
3. He might,	3. They might.

Originally *I may* meant *I am able.* Now it means *I am allowed to.* In this sense *may* is a notional verb, and the infinitive mode by which it is followed is an adverbial modifier; as, *The Board* ***may elect*** *their own president and secretary.*

In cases, however, where *may* is in the subjunctive mode, especially after *that* and *lest*, the idea of permission almost disappears, and it becomes an auxiliary, forming an equivalent for the subjunctive mode of the principal verb; as, *Let him eat that he* ***may not grow*** *faint. Be not idle, lest ye* ***may come to*** *want.*

The present and past tenses of the subjunctive mode are the same as those of the indicative, except that the inflection of the second person singular is omitted.

Defective Verbs.

421. Several of the auxiliary verbs are defective (§ **414**), as has been shown. Several notional verbs, as *can*, *must*, *ought*, *dare*, *wit*, *need*, *hight*, *dight*, are either defective or have some peculiarity in their conjugation.

422. CAN.

Indicative Mode.

Present Tense.		Past Tense.	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. I can,	1. We can,	1. I could,	1. We could,
2. Thou canst,	2. You can,	2. Thou couldst,	2. You could,
3. He can,	3. They can.	3. He could,	3. They could.

In the author's judgment, *can* is always a notional verb, and the verb following it is in the infinitive mode; but see § **433.**

The *l* in *could* does not properly belong to the verb. It was inserted to make the word agree in form with *would* and *should.*

Originally *can* meant *to know;* and from the idea of knowledge arose the idea of power. The adjective *cunning* was originally the present participle of this verb.

423. *Must* is now used only in the present tense, indicative mode. It has no variations of form. It is always notional, and is followed by a dependent infinitive; as, *He must be mistaken.*

424. *Ought* has but one change of form; it adds *-est* for the second person singular.

Ought, though now generally used in the present tense, is an old form of the past tense of the verb *owe.*

To express past time the dependent infinitive after *ought* must be past; as, *These things ought ye* ***to have done.***

425. *To wit*, meaning *to know*, is now used only in the infinitive mode in the sense of *namely, that is to say.* The forms *I wot, God wot*, are found in old writers.

426. For *methinks, me lists,* see §**231,** and §**337.**

427. *Hight* means *was* or *is called.* It has no other forms. "A most singular word," says Skeat, "presenting the sole instance in English of a *passive* verb."

428. *Need,* when it means *to be in want of,* is conjugated in the ordinary way. When it conveys the sense of *being under a necessity,* the third person singular is *He need,* not *He needs.*

The third person singular *needs* must not be confounded with the adverb *needs;* as, *He* ***needs*** *advice. He must* ***needs*** *go through Samaria.*

429. *Dight,* a past participle, now rarely used, is a shortened form of *dighted,* meaning *prepared, adorned,* as in Milton's line, *The clouds in thousand liveries dight.*

430. *Dare,* meaning *to have courage, to venture,* has both *dare* and *dares* in the third person singular, present tense of the indicative mode, and a past tense *durst.*

The Duke
Dare no more stretch this finger of mine
Than he *dare* stretch his own.—*Shakespeare.*

I dare do all that may become a man,
Who *dares* do more is none.—*Shakespeare.*

Dare, meaning *to challenge, defy,* has a past tense *dared,* and is conjugated in the regular way.

431. *Quoth* is used only in the first and third person singular, past tense, and means *said I, said he.* It is now rarely used.

EXERCISE 46.—*With regard to each of the finite verbs in the following sentences, tell its tense and mode and whether it is used as a notional or as an auxiliary verb:*

You may go. May you be happy! She can sing. He willed that I should remain. He will be present. Virtue shall have its reward. Does your mother know of this? She does not know. Beware lest you should fall. She does her work admirably. He did what he could. I will help you if I can. He durst not go home. He should be richer than he is.

432. To show in both voices the conjugation of a verb, it will be necessary to select a transitive verb, since both voices are found only in transitive verbs. We give, therefore, the

CONJUGATION OF THE TRANSITIVE VERB See.

	PRESENT.	PAST.	PRES. PART.	PAST PART.
PRIN. PARTS:	See,	Saw,	Seeing,	Seen.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I see,	1. We see,
2. Thou seest,	2. You see,
3. He sees,	3. They see.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am seen,	1. We are seen,
2. Thou art seen,	2. You are seen,
3. He is seen,	3. They are seen.

PAST TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I saw,	1. We saw,
2. Thou sawest,	2. You saw,
3. He saw,	3. They saw.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was seen,	1. We were seen,
2. Thou wast seen,	2. You were seen,
3. He was seen,	3. They were seen.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have seen,	1. We have seen,
2. Thou hast seen,	2. You have seen,
3. He has seen,	3. They have seen.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been seen,	1. We have been seen,
2. Thou hast been seen,	2. You have been seen,
3. He has been seen,	3. They have been seen.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had seen,	1. We had seen,
2. Thou hadst seen,	2. You had seen,
3. He had seen,	3. They had seen.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been seen,	1. We had been seen,
2. Thou hadst been seen,	2. You had been seen,
3. He had been seen,	3. They had been seen.

FUTURE TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall or will see,	1. We shall or will see,
2. Thou shalt or wilt see,	2. You shall or will see,
3. He shall or will see,	3. They shall or will see.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall or will be seen,	1. We shall or will be seen,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be seen,	2. You shall or will be seen,
3. He shall or will be seen,	3. They shall or will be seen.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall or will 2. Thou shalt or wilt 3. He shall or will } have seen,	1. We shall or will 2. You shall or will 3. They shall or will } have seen.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1. I shall or will	have	1. We shall or will	have
2. Thou shalt or wilt	been	2. You shall or will	been
3. He shall or will	seen,	3. They shall or will	seen.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

(Generally used after *if*, *lest*, *though*, etc.)

PRESENT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I see,	1. We see,
2. Thou see,	2. You see,
3. He see,	3. They see.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I be seen,	1. We be seen,
2. Thou be seen,	2. You be seen,
3. He be seen,	3. They be seen.

PAST TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I saw,	1. We saw,
2. Thou saw,	2. You saw,
3. He saw,	3. They saw.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I were seen,	1. We were seen,
2. Thou wert seen,	2. You were seen,
3. He were seen,	3. They were seen.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I, thou, he have seen.	We, you, they have seen.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I, thou, he have been seen.	We, you, they have been seen

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I, thou, he had seen.	We, you, they had seen.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I, thou, he had been seen.	We, you, they had been seen.

FUTURE TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.		*Plural.*		
1. I should 2. Thou wouldst 3. He would	see,	1. We 2. You 3. They	should or would	see.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.		*Plural.*		
1. I should 2. Thou wouldst 3. He would	be seen,	1. We 2. You 3. They	should or would	be seen.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.		*Plural.*		
1. I should 2. Thou wouldst 3. He would	have seen,	1. We 2. You 3. They	should or would	have seen.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.		*Plural.*		
1. I should 2. Thou wouldst 3. He would	have been seen,	1. We 2. You 3. They	should or would	have been seen.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. See (thou).	2. See (ye or you).

PASSIVE VOICE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Be (thou) seen.	2. Be (ye or you) seen.

INFINITIVE MODE.

	ACTIVE VOICE.	PASSIVE VOICE.
PRESENT TENSE:	To see.	To be seen.
PRES. PERF. TENSE:	To have seen.	To have been seen.

VERBALS.

PARTICIPLES.

	ACTIVE VOICE.	PASSIVE VOICE.
PRESENT:	Seeing.	Being seen.
PAST:		Seen.
PERFECT:	Having seen.	Having been seen.

GERUNDS.

PRESENT:	Seeing.	Being seen.
PERFECT:	Having seen	Having been seen.

EXERCISE 47.—*Write the emphatic form of the present and past tenses, indicative mode, of* **see.**

Write the interrogative forms of the tenses of the indicative mode.

Write the progressive forms of the tenses, both active and passive voice, wherever possible, in the interrogative and affirmative forms.

Write the tenses of the indicative mode, active and passive voices, as they would be used in negative sentences.

433. Some authors use the verbs *may*, *can*, and *must*, together with the past tense of *will* and *shall*, as auxiliaries with which to form for other verbs what is called the **potential mode.** For teachers that prefer to retain this so-called mode, its conjugation for the verb *lie* (to recline) is given below.

Potential Mode.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may, can, must lie,	1. We may, can, must lie,
2. Thou mayst, canst, must lie,	2. You may, can. must lie,
3. He may, can, must lie.	3. They may, can, must lie.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might, could, would, should lie,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst lie,
3. He might, could, would, should lie.

Plural.

1. We might, could, would, should lie,
2. You might, could, would, should lie,
3. They might, could, would, should lie.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may, can, must have lain,
2. Thou mayst, canst, must have lain,
3. He may, can, must have lain.

Plural.

1. We may, can, must have lain,
2. You may, can, must have lain,
3. They may, can, must have lain.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might, could, would, should have lain,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst have lain,
3. He might, could, would, should have lain.

Plural.

1. We might, could, would, should have lain,
2. You might, could, would, should have lain,
3. They might, could, would, should have lain.

The highest authorities on English grammar, such as Maetzner, Whitney, Bain, and Morris, are now agreed in rejecting

the so-called potential mode. *I may go* may express a statement of fact, in which case *may* is in the indicative mode; or a condition or supposition, in which case *may* is an auxiliary, and *may go* may be parsed as in the subjunctive mode.

434. It has been stated (§ **400**) that verbs are *regular* or *weak*, and *irregular* or *strong*. The formation of the various modes, tenses, numbers, and persons of the regular verb is very simple, but that of the irregular verb is much less so. The difficulty arises from the irregularity of the past tense, indicative mode, and the past participle. If these are known, for any verb, it is easy to inflect the verb throughout. The following list is given for reference. Verbs that are also regular are marked R. Forms little used are printed in italics.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Pres.	*Past.*	*Past P.*
Abide	abode	abode
Am, be	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, R.	awaked
Bake	baked	baked, *baken*
Bear	bore, *bare*	born
Bear (*to carry.*)	bore, *bare*	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bet	bet, R.	bet, R.
Bless	blest, R.	blest, R.
Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, *brake*	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built, R.	built, R.
Burn	burnt, R.	burnt, R
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Can	could	——
Cast	cast	cast

Pres.	*Past.*	*Past P.*
Catch	caught	caught
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, (*to split.*)	clove, R. cleft *clave*	cloven, cleft
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clad, R.	clad, R.
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Cut	cut	cut
Dare	durst, R.	dared
Deal	dealt	dealt, R.
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamt, R.	dreamt, R.
Dress	drest, R.	drest, R.
Drink	drank	drank, drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	got, gotten
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.

Pres.	*Past.*	*Past P.*
Gird	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven, R.
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung, R.	hung
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, R.	hove, R.
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held, *holden*
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Knit	knit, R.	knit, R.
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden, R.
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Lean	leant, R.	leant, R.
Leap	leapt, R.	leapt, R.
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie (*recline*)	lay	lain
Light	lit, R.	lit, R.
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
May	might	——
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, R.
Pay	paid	paid

Pres.	*Past.*	*Past P.*
Pen, (*to inclose.*)	pent, R.	pent, R.
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.
Rap	rapt, R.	rapt, R.
Read	rĕad	rĕad
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	ridden
Ring	rang, *rung*	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven, R.
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, R.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	seethed	sodden, R.
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shall	should	——
Shape	shaped	shapen, R.
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.
Shear	sheared	shorn, R.
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, R.	shone, R.
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown, R.
Shred	shred	shred
Shrink	shrunk, *shrank*	shrunk, *shrunken*
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang, *sung*	sung
Sink	sank, sunk	sunk
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit, R.
Smite	smote	smitten, *smit*
Sow	sowed	sown, R.
Speak	spoke, *spake*	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Spin	spun, *span*	spun
Spit	spit, *spat*	spit
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprang	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Stave	staved, stove	staved, stove
Stay	staid, stayed	staid, stayed
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stride	strode	stridden,
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew	strewed	strown, R.

Pres.	*Past.*	*Past. P.*
Swear	swore, *sware*	sworn
Sweat	sweat	sweat, R.
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.
Swim	swam, *swum*	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take,	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore, *tare*	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	thrived, *throve*	thriven, R.
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod,	trodden, trod
Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet, R.	wet, R.
Whet	whet, R.	whet, R.
Will	would	——
Win	won	won
Wind	wound, R.	wound
Work	wrought, R	wrought, R
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written

Parsing the Verb.

435. The verb is parsed by

1. Telling whether it is regular or irregular, and why.

2. Giving its principal parts.

3. Telling whether it is transitive or intransitive; and, if transitive, stating its object, and its voice.

4. Stating its mode, tense, number, and person; and the reason in each case.

Exercise 48.—*Parse the verbs in the following selections:*

1. The bird built its nest in an old apple tree.

Model.—**Built** is an **irregular verb,** because it does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present.

Principal parts,—present, *build;* past, *built;* present participle, *building;* past participle, *built.*

Transitive, because it has *nest* for its object.

Active voice, because its subject denotes the doer of the action.

Indicative mode,—it simply states a fact; **past tense,**—it denotes past action; **third person, singular number,** because its subject *bird* is third person, singular.

In practice, however, it is sufficient to parse as follows: An irregular, transitive verb, active voice, indicative mode, and third person singular, because its subject *bird* is third person singular.

2. But a cunning man was the cobbler;
He could call the birds from the trees,
Charm the black snake out of the ledges,
And bring back the swarming bees.—*Whittier.*

3. Ailie stepped up on a seat, and laid herself on the table, as her friend the surgeon told her; arranged herself, gave a rapid look at James, shut her eyes, rested herself on me, and took my hand. The operation was at once begun; it was necessarily slow; and chloroform—one of God's best gifts to his suffering children—was then unknown.—*Dr. John Brown.*

4. And if we do but watch the hour,
There never yet was human power
That could evade, if unforgiven,
The patient search and vigil long
Of him that treasures up a wrong.—*Byron.*

5. A male bird brought to his box a large, fine goose feather, which is a great find for a sparrow, and much coveted. After he had deposited his prize and chattered his gratulations over it, he went away in quest of his mate. His next-door neighbor, a female bird, seeing her chance, quickly slipped in and seized the feather,—and here the wit of the bird came out, for instead of carrying it into her own box, she flew with it to a near tree, and hid it in a fork of the branches, then went home, and when her neighbor returned with his mate, was innocently employed about her own affairs. The proud male, finding his feather gone, came out of his box in a high state of excitement, and, with wrath in his manner and accusation on his tongue, rushed into the cot of the female. Not finding his goods and chattels there as he had expected, he stormed

around awhile, abusing everybody in general, and his neighbor in particular, and then went away as if to repair the loss. As soon as he was out of sight, the shrewd thief went and brought the feather home, and lined her own domicile with it.—*John Burroughs.*

6. I do not know what I may appear to the world, but to myself I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the sea-shore, and diverting myself in now and then finding a smoother pebble, or a prettier shell than ordinary, while the great ocean of truth lay all undiscovered before me.—*Sir Isaac Newton.*

THE ADVERB.

436. DEFINITION.—An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

(Read again paragraphs 23-27, and work Exercise 4.)

CLASSES.

437. According to their functions in the sentence, adverbs are of three classes: 1. **Simple** adverbs; 2. **Interrogative** adverbs; 3. **Conjunctive** adverbs.

438. A **simple** adverb modifies the meaning of the word with which it is used; as,

*But we **steadfastly** gazed on the face of the dead,*
*And we **bitterly** thought of the morrow.*—WOLF.

*Though the mills of God grind **slowly***
*Yet they grind **exceeding** small.*
—H. W. LONGFELLOW.

Extremes of fortune are true wisdom's test,
*And he's of men **most** wise who bears them **best.***

439. An **interrogative** adverb is an adverb used to ask a question; as,

When shall we three meet again?—SHAKESPEARE.

Where are the pure, whom thou wouldst choose to love thee?
—A. H. CLOUGH.

Why crisp the waters blue?—O. W. HOLMES.

440. A **conjunctive** adverb is an adverb that modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, in a subordinate clause, and also connects that clause with the principal clause.

In the sentence, *Spring is the time **when** the swallows come, when* modifies the meaning of the verb *come* and connects an adjective clause with the noun *time*. In the sentence, *Go **where** glory waits thee, where* modifies the meaning of the verb *waits* and connects an adverbial clause with the verb *go*.

There is generally some demonstrative word expressed or understood that stands to a conjunctive adverb in a relation similar to that in which the *antecedent* stands to a relative pronoun; as, ***There, where** a few torn shrubs the place disclose; Come* (then) ***when** you are ready.*

The following words are conjunctive adverbs:

when	whence	whereby	whereat
where	why	wherefore	while
as	wherein	whereon	whenever

441. Adverbs may be classified according to their meanings as follows:

1. **Adverbs of place**, answering to the question (*a*) *where?* (*b*) *whither?* (*c*) *whence?* as, (*a*) *here, there, anywhere, yonder*, etc.; (*b*) *hither, thither, backward*, etc.; (*c*) *hence, thence*, etc.

2. **Adverbs of time**, answering to the question *when?* as, *now, to-day, yesterday, to-morrow, by and by, still, again, then, afterward*, etc.

3. **Adverbs of number**; as, *once, twice, thrice; first, secondly, thirdly.*

4. **Adverbs of manner**; as, *how, well, ill, badly, aloud, so, thus.*

5. **Adverbs of degree**; as, *very, too, almost, quite, much, little, no, more, most, less, least,* and *the* before an adjective in the comparative degree.

6. **Adverbs of cause**; as, *why, wherefore, whence.*

7. **Adverbs of assertion** and **denial**; as, *yes, yea, aye, nay, no, not.*

The classification of adverbs according to meaning is given, not to be learned by rote, but as an aid in parsing.

442. When *the* is used before an adjective in the comparative degree, as, ***the** more **the** merrier,* it is not the definite article but an adverb. In this use it is derived from an Anglo-Saxon case of the demonstrative *that,* meaning *by so much.*

443. *Yes* and *no,* when standing alone in reply to questions, are not really adverbs. They are, in fact, the equivalents of sentences, and are more nearly akin to interjections.

444. Many adverbs are composed of two or more words; as, *from above, one by one, now and then, ever and anon,* and the like. These may be called **phrase adverbs.**

445. It can not be impressed too strongly or too frequently on the student, that the function which a word discharges in a sentence determines the part of speech to which it belongs:

1. Words that are ordinarily *nouns* are sometimes used as *adverbs;* as in the expressions,

Stone** dead. He cares not **a cent.

2. Words that are ordinarily adjectives sometimes become adverbs; as,

He speaks ***loud.*** *He runs* ***fast.***

The reason is that in olden times adverbs were formed from adjectives by adding *e;* as, *bright, brighte.* In modern English the *e* has been dropped in these cases, and no other suffix substituted.

3. Words that are usually adverbs occasionally become nouns; as,

Now (= the present time) *is the accepted time,* ***now*** *is the day of salvation. He came from* ***abroad.***

4. Words that are usually adverbs become adjectives: (*a*) as modifiers; (*b*) as predicate complements.

(*a*) *Drink no longer water, but use a little wine, for thy stomach's sake, and thine* ***often*** *infirmities.*—BIBLE.

Even *Homer sometimes nods.*

This example some grammarians would explain by supplying an ellipsis:

Even (so careful a poet as) *Homer sometimes nods.*

(*b*) *He is* ***here.*** *The child is* ***away.***

In the last example (*b*) *here* and *away* are usually parsed as adverbs. But a little consideration will show that the verb *to be,* when it is merely a copula (see § **348**), can not take a modifier. In the examples given above, the verb serves simply to assert locality. Hence, *here* and *away* may be parsed as *adverbs used as predicate adjectives.*

5. The word *as* is used as a relative pronoun, as an adverb, as a subordinate conjunction, and as a preposition.

In the sentence, *Such* ***as*** *I have I give, as* is a relative pronoun.

In the sentence, *He is* ***as*** *clever* ***as*** *his brother,* the first *as* is an adverb of degree; the second *as* is a conjunctive adverb.

In the sentence, ***As*** *I am your subordinate I will obey you. as* (= because) is a subordinate conjunction. (See § **463.**)

In the sentence, *As the clergyman was returning from church, he met his daughters, as* is an adverb of time.

In the sentence, *Ruskin is greatest as an art critic, as* is a preposition.

446. Most adverbs of manner and degree admit of comparison:

1. Adverbs ending in *ly* are generally compared by prefixing *more* and *most;* as,

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
keenly	***more** keenly*	***most** keenly*
beautifully	***more** beautifully*	***most** beautifully*

2. Some adverbs are compared by adding the suffixes *er* and *est;* as,

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
fast	*faster*	*fastest*
soon	*sooner*	*soonest*
often	*oftener*	*oftenest*

3. The following adverbs are either irregular or defective in their comparison:

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
well	better	best
ill	worse	worst
much	more	most
nigh (or near)	nearer	next
forth	further	furthest
far	farther	farthest
late	later	last (or latest)
(rathe)	rather	

Further and *furthest* are now generally used to express progress, advancement; *farther* and *farthest*, with respect to distance in space.

Rather is derived from an old adjective *rathe*, meaning *early*. Milton speaks of *the **rathe** primrose*, and Tennyson writes, *Till **rathe** she rose, half-cheated in the thought.*

Substitutes for the Adverb.

447. Adverbial phrases or adverbial clauses may take the place of adverbs, generally with the result of making the statement more precise. A sentence containing an adverbial clause is complex.

For *there*, in the sentence *He was seen* ***there,*** we may substitute the phrases, *in the street, at church, on top of the house,* with the result of more exactly defining our meaning.

In *He is not careful* ***enough,*** we may substitute a clause for the word *enough*, and say *He is not so careful* ***as he ought to be.***

Parsing.

448. An adverb is parsed by telling:

1. The verb, etc., whose meaning is modified.
2. In what way it modifies, whether as to place, time, manner, degree, etc.
3. Its degree of comparison.

Exercise 49.—*Pick out all the adverbs, adverbial phrases, and adverbial clauses, in the following selections, and tell what each modifies:*

1. Out of the obliquity of the equator has come forth our civilization.—*Motley.*

2. Gone was the glow from his cheek and the fire from his eye.

3. Loud from its rocky caverns, the deep-voiced neighboring ocean
Speaks, and in accents disconsolate answers the wail of the forest.—*Longfellow.*

4. Before her queenly womanhood
How dared our hostess utter
The paltry errand of her need
To buy her fresh-churned butter?—*Whittier*

5. By searching in the grass, the skins of grasshoppers may be occasionally found still clinging to the spears of grass where they were left when the grasshoppers shed them.—*E. S. Morse.*

6. A great part of Holland and Flanders has been reclaimed by draining, and thus rendered not only habitable, but extremely valuable for agricultural purposes.

7. Soon a remarkable fossil, shawled to the chin and bandaged like a mummy, appeared at the door of the after deckhouse, and was shot into my arms by the next lurch of the ship.

8. There is nothing so desperately monotonous as the sea; and I no longer wonder at the cruelty of pirates. Fancy an existence in which the coming up of a clumsy finback whale, who says Pooh! to you solemnly as you lean over the taffrail, is an event as exciting as an election on shore! The dampness seems to strike into the wits as into the lucifer matches, so that one may scratch a thought half a dozen times and get nothing but a faint sputter, the forlorn hope of fire, which only goes far enough to leave a sense of suffocation behind it.—*Lowell.*

THE PREPOSITION.

449. DEFINITION.—A **preposition** is a word used with a noun or its equivalent so as to form an adjective modifier or an adverbial modifier.

(Read again paragraphs 31–33 and work Exercises 6 and 7.)

450. The noun or its equivalent that depends upon the preposition is in the objective case; as, *before* ***me***; *after* ***us***; *in the* ***garden.***

The preposition is said to **govern** the noun in the objective case, and the noun is said to be the **object** of the preposition.

451. Generally, the preposition precedes its object. In poetry, and when the object is a relative pronoun, the preposition often follows its object.

O stream descending to the sea,
Thy mossy banks ***between***
The flowerets blow, the grasses grow,
The leafy trees are green.—A. H. CLOUGH.

Where do you come ***from?***
Whom are you speaking ***about?***

452. Any equivalent of a noun may be the object of a preposition. The equivalent may be:

1. A pronoun; as,

Cannon in front of ***them.***—TENNYSON.

2. A word that is usually an adjective or an adverb used as a noun; as,

Step by step lifts bad to ***good.***—EMERSON.

Let the great world spin for ***ever***
Down the ringing grooves of change.—TENNYSON.

3. A gerund; as,

By ***straining*** *every nerve you may succeed.*

4. A noun phrase; as,

None knew thee but ***to love thee,***
None named thee but ***to praise.***—HALLECK.

5. A noun clause; as,

From ***what he said,*** *I gathered that his opinion was adverse.*

453. The preposition shows the relation between its object and some other word in the sentence.

This other word may be a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or a noun or pronoun. (See § **32.**)

When a preposition shows the relation of its ob-

ject to a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, it aids in forming an adverbial phrase or clause; to a noun or pronoun, an adjective phrase or clause.

454. Some prepositions are made up of two or three words; as, *according to*, *on account of*, *by means of*. These may be called **phrase prepositions.**

455. Some words are used both as prepositions and as adverbs; as, *since*, *above*, *below*, *down*.

The use of the word must determine the part of speech. If it is used as a modifier, it is an adverb; if to govern a noun or its equivalent, a preposition.

> ***Above, below,*** *the rose of snow,*
> *Twin'd with her blushing foe we spread.*—GRAY.

Here, *above* and *below* are adverbs modifying the verb *spread*. In *The church rises* ***above*** *the other houses, A cellar was dug* ***below*** *the house, above* and *below* are prepositions.

456. Some words originally present participles are now often used with the force of prepositions; as, *considering*, *respecting*, *regarding*, *touching*.

457. Prepositions are sometimes used in composition with verbs; as, *to* ***carry off*** *the prize; to* ***laugh at*** *another's mistakes.*

In this construction, the preposition usually follows the verb. Sometimes it precedes it and is united with it; as, ***under***-*go*, ***over***-*take*.

The effect of joining a preposition to a transitive verb is to make its meaning more exact, so that the preposition is used with a modifying or adverbial tendency.

The effect upon an intransitive verb is to make it transitive. (See § **341.**)

PARSING.

458. In parsing a preposition it is necessary only to state its object, and the relation which the phrase of which it is a part bears to some other word in the sentence.

EXERCISE 50.—*Pick out all the prepositions in the following selections, name their objects, and tell whether the elements of the sentence they aid in forming, are adjective or adverbial phrases, or adjective or adverbial clauses, and why:*

1. The number of teeth and their form vary greatly in the different groups of animals.

2. Tears are the softening showers which cause the seed of heaven to spring up in the human heart.—*Sir Walter Scott.*

3. Mont Blanc is the monarch of mountains;
They crowned him long ago
On a throne of rocks, in a robe of clouds,
With a diadem of snow.—*Byron.*

4. Ichabod Crane's appetite for the marvelous and his powers of digesting it were equally extraordinary, and had been increased by his residence in the spell-bound region of Sleepy Hollow.—*Washington Irving.*

5. Over the wooded northern ridge,
Between its houses brown,
To the dark tunnel of the bridge
The street comes straggling down.—*Whittier.*

6. Doubtless, to think deeply and clearly in the recess of a cabinet is a fine intellectual demonstration; but to think with equal depth and equal clearness amid bullets is the most complete exercise of the human faculties.—*Disraeli.*

7. Rats!

They fought the dogs and killed the cats,
And bit the babies in the cradles,
And ate the cheese out of the vats,
And licked the soup from the cook's own ladles,
Split open the kegs of salted sprats,
Made nests inside men's Sunday hats,
And even spoiled the women's chats,
By drowning their speaking
With shrieking and squeaking
In fifty different sharps and flats.—*Robt. Browning.*

8. It is undeniable that a person seems temporarily to change his nature when he becomes part of an excursion. Whether it is from the elation at the purchase of a day of gayety below the market price, or the escape from personal responsibility under a conductor, or the love of being conspicuous as a part of a sort of organization, the excursionist is not on his ordinary behavior.—*C. D. Warner.*

THE CONJUNCTION.

459. DEFINITION.—A **conjunction** is a word used to connect words or sentences.

(Read again paragraphs 34–40, and work Exercises 8 and 9.)

CLASSES.

460. Conjunctions are divided, according to their use, into two principal classes: 1. *Co-ordinate conjunctions;* 2. *Subordinate conjunctions.*

461. A **co-ordinate conjunction** is a conjunction that joins (*a*) two independent clauses, or two co-ordinate elements of a sentence. The co-ordinate elements may be, (*b*) two words, (*c*) two phrases, or (*d*) two dependent clauses, having the same grammatical relation.

(*a*) *Knowledge comes,* ***but*** *wisdom lingers,* ***and*** *I linger on the shore,*
And *the individual withers,* ***and*** *the world is more* ***and*** *more.*
—TENNYSON.

(*b*) —*Not only we, that prate*
Of rights ***and*** *wrongs, have loved the people well,*
And *loathed to see them overtax'd; but*
She did move, ***and*** *underwent,* ***and*** *overcame.*—TENNYSON.

(*c*) *We grow ourselves*
Divine by overcoming with mere hope
And (with) *most prosaic patience.*
—MRS. BROWNING.

(*d*) *I had been content to perish, falling on the foeman's ground,*
When the ranks are roll'd in vapor, ***and*** *the winds are laid*
with sound.—TENNYSON.

462. The co-ordinate conjunctions are divided as follows:

(*a*) *Copulative*, denoting addition; as, *both, and, also, moreover, further*, etc.

(*b*) *Disjunctive*, denoting choice or separation; as, *either, or, neither, nor, else, otherwise.*

(*c*) *Adversative*, denoting opposition of meaning; as, *but, still, yet, notwithstanding, however.*

(*d*) *Illative*, denoting effect or consequence; as, *therefore, wherefore, hence, whence, consequently, accordingly, thus, so, so that, then, so then.*

463. A **subordinate conjunction** is a conjunction that joins a subordinate clause to the principal clause of a sentence.

When the subordinate clause is used as the subject or the object of a verb, it is a noun clause; as a modifier of a noun or pronoun, an adjective clause; as a modifier of a verb, adjective, or adverb, an adverbial clause.

464. *Subordinate* conjunctions are classified according to the various relations which they indicate:

(*a*) Time; as, *as, while, until, before, ere, since, after, as soon as, as long as.*

(*b*) Reason or cause; as, *because, for, since, as, whereas, inasmuch as.*

(*c*) Supposition or condition; as, *if, provided, supposing, unless, except, otherwise, though, notwithstanding, albeit, whether.*

(*d*) End or purpose; as, *that, in order that, lest.*

(*e*) The conjunction of comparison, *than.* The clause introduced by *than* is often partially omitted; as, *He can read better than I* (***can read***). *He is taller than I* (***am tall***).

465. The distinction between co-ordinate and subordinate conjunctions is of great importance, as upon it, in many cases, depends the distinction between compound and complex sentences. When two clauses are joined by a co-ordinate conjunction, they form a compound sentence; by a subordinate conjunction, a complex sentence. (See §§ **69–78.**)

The student will bear in mind, however, that dependent clauses are introduced by relative pronouns and conjunctive adverbs as well as by subordinate conjunctions.

It is sometimes difficult to tell whether a connective is a conjunction, or a conjunctive adverb. The rule is:

(*a*) If a word only joins two clauses, it is a conjunction.

(*b*) If in addition to joining two clauses, it serves to modify the meaning of some verb, adjective, or adverb in the clause it introduces, it is a conjunctive adverb.

In the sentence, *He came* ***after*** *you had gone, after* merely serves to connect the sentences *He came* and *You had gone.* In the sentence, *He came* ***when*** *John was here, when* connects the two sentences *He came* and *John was here,* and so far it is a conjunction. If, however, we supply the correlative *then* with the first sentence, it is evident that *when* modifies the meaning of the predicate *was here: He came* ***then, when*** *John was here.*

466. Conjunctions often occur in pairs; as,

Both—and: ***Both*** *John* ***and*** *James are coming.*
Not only—but: He ***not only*** *reads well* ***but*** *writes well.*
Either—or: He regarded him as ***either*** *a knave* ***or*** *a fool.*

Neither—nor: ***Neither*** *heat* ***nor*** *cold could daunt him.*

Whether—or: ***Whether*** *he go* ***or*** *stay, is a matter of no consequence.*

Though—yet: ***Though*** *all men deny thee,* ***yet*** *will not I.*

467. *Or* sometimes introduces an alternative name or synonym; as, *The prime minister,* ***or*** *head of the British Cabinet.* The first name is usually followed by a comma.

468. *Nor* is sometimes equivalent to *and not;* as, *He suspected that all was not right,* ***nor*** *was he deceived* (***and*** *he was* ***not***).

PARSING.

469. To parse a conjunction it is necessary to tell what elements of the sentence it connects, and the relation that exists between them. From this it may be determined whether the conjunction is co-ordinate or subordinate, and what special signification it expresses.

EXERCISE 51.—*Pick out the conjunctions in the following selections, tell what elements of the sentence each connects, and state whether it is co-ordinate or subordinate.*

If the conjunction is co-ordinate, state the relation that it denotes.

If subordinate, state whether it introduces a noun clause, an adjective clause, or an adverbial clause, and why.

Point out the conjunctive adverbs, and tell what kind of clause each introduces:

1. Never expect to govern others unless you have learned to govern yourself.

2. A man is shorter when he is walking than when at rest. —*O. W. Holmes.*

3. What is twice read is commonly better remembered than what is transcribed.—*Johnson.*

4. Dreary are the years, when the eye can look no longer
With delight on nature, or hope on human kind.—*Bryant.*

5. No man was more foolish when he had not a pen in his hand, nor more wise when he had.—*S. Johnson on Goldsmith.*

6. One is sometimes tempted to wish that the superlative could be abolished, or its use allowed only to old experts.— *O. W. Holmes.*

7. This is truth the poet sings,
That a sorrow's crown of sorrow is remembering happier things.—*Tennyson.*

8. If coal and the useful metals are found in any region, manufacturing interests will sooner or later be developed.

9. Every individual has a place to fill in the world, and is important in some respect, whether he chooses to be so or not. —*Hawthorne.*

10. When I had gone half a mile, my opinion of the character of the pools was unchanged; never were there such places for trout; but the trout were out of their places.—*C. D. Warner.*

11. Neither locks had they to their doors, nor bars to their windows;
But their dwellings were open as day and the hearts of the owners.—*Longfellow.*

12. Nature has a thousand ways and means of rising above herself; but incomparably the noblest manifestations of her capability of color are in the sunsets among the high clouds.— *Ruskin.*

13. I remember, I remember
The house where I was born,
The little window where the sun
Came peeping in at morn.—*Thomas Hood.*

14. On one of those sober and rather melancholy days, in the latter part of autumn, when the shadows of morning and

evening almost mingle together, and throw a gloom over the decline of the year, I passed several hours in rambling about Westminster Abbey. There was something congenial to the season in the mournful magnificence of the old pile; and as I passed its threshold, it seemed like stepping back into regions of antiquity, and losing myself among the shades of former ages. —*Washington Irving.*

CHAPTER IV.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

470. Etymology has been defined as that part of grammar which treats of the classification, inflection, and formation of words. (See § **96.**)

471. Words are classified, according to their **uses** in sentences, as nouns, pronouns, verbs, etc.

472. Words are classified, according to **formation,** as **prime** and **composite.**

473. DEFINITION.—A **prime word** is a word that expresses a single idea and that can not be analyzed into any simpler elements; as, *I, man, long, go, in, now.*

474. DEFINITION.—A **composite word** is a word that expresses more than one idea and that can be analyzed into simpler elements, as *watchman, careful.*

475. In a composite word each idea is expressed by a definite part of the word, and these parts are called the **component elements** of the word.

A *composite word* is said to be formed by composition.

476. The component elements of composite words

are of three kinds: (*a*) Prime words, as in *rail-road*, re*call*, *kind*ly; (*b*) prefixes, as in *re*call, *pre*-vent; (*c*) suffixes, as in kind-*ly*, leg-*ible*; (*d*) stems, as in ex-*tract*, in*scribe*, *quadru-ped*.

477. A **prefix** (*pre* = before, *fix* = fastened) is a significant element occurring at the beginning of a word and it is used to express a modifying idea; as, *re*-call = to call *back*; *ex*-tract = to draw *out*.

478. A **suffix** (*suf* or *sub* = under, after, *fix* = fastened) is a significant element at the end of a word and it is used to express a modifying idea; as, wood-*en*, hate-*ful*.

The peculiar mark of a prefix or a suffix is that it can never be used except as a subordinate element in a word.

Some prefixes and suffixes are of Anglo-Saxon origin, some come to us from the Latin, and some from the Greek.

479. A **stem** is a significant element having in composition all the properties of a word, but it is used only in composition; as, ex-*tend* (*tend* = stretch, *ex* = out).

Stems are so called because they are parts of words found in other languages, chiefly the Latin and the Greek, to which inflections were added, as branches are attached to the stem of a tree. During the last nineteen centuries they have been gradually transplanted into the English language, and may now be studied as constituent parts of our every-day speech. Formerly they were called *roots*, but this term is now restricted to certain forms that are supposed to be the common ancestors of similar words in most of the European, and three or four of the Asiatic, languages.*

* Kennedy's "Stem Dictionary" presents a collection of the most frequently used stems with their meanings and combinations in words.

480. In every composite word one of the elements is called the **base**, because it is the principal part. Its meaning is modified by one or more subordinate elements, which are called **adjuncts**.

481. The *base* may be a word; as in *rail**road**, re**call**,* or it may be a stem, as in *auto**graph*** (self-*write*), ***expand*** (*spread* out).

482. The *adjunct* may be a word, as in ***railroad**, **tea-pot**;* or a prefix, as in ***re**-call, **ex**-pand;* or a suffix, as *man**ly*** (man-like), *leg-**ible*** (read-able).

When both the *base* and the *adjunct* are words, the composite word is called **compound**; as, *black-bird, rain-bow, house-top, walking-stick.*

When the compound word is an unusual one, as *deer-stalking, loud-bellowing,* the parts are usually connected in writing by a hyphen. In commonly used compounds the hyphen is generally omitted.

In conversation a compound word is generally distinguished by accenting the term that would not be accented were its parts used separately. Thus, *song'-thrush, black'-bird;* not, *song thrush', black bird'.*

483. When the *base* and the *adjunct* are both stems, the composite word is called a **stem-compound** word; as, *auto-graph* (self-write), *quadru-ped* (four-foot).

484. When the *base* is a word and the adjunct is a prefix or a suffix, the composite word is called a **derivative** word; as, ***re**-call, just-**ly**.*

485. When the *base* is a stem, and the adjunct is an affix, the composite word is called a **stem-**

derivative word; as, *re-mit* (send back), *fac-ile* (ready to do).

Frequently we find both a prefix and a suffix; as, ***im-port-ance, com-posit-ion.***

Sometimes the base is itself a derivative word; as, ***incom-plete-ness.***

Following is a list of the principal prefixes and suffixes of Anglo-Saxon (old form of English), Latin, and Greek origin, now in use in the English language:

English Prefixes.

486. Those used to form nouns:

Fore = before; as, *fore-father.*
Mis = wrong; as, *mis-deed, mis-chance.*
Un = the opposite of; as, *un-truth, un-belief.*

487. Those used to form adjectives:

A = on; as, *a-live, a-board, a-sleep.*
For = quite, thoroughly; as, *for-lorn.*
Un = not; as, *un-true, un-wise.*
Mis = wrong; as, *mis-shapen.*

488. Those used to form verbs:

A = out, from, away, often used to intensify the meaning of the verb; as, *a-rise, a-wake, a-rouse.*

Be = by, and is used in several ways:

1. To intensify the meaning of the verb; as, *be-daub, be-smear.*

2. To change intransitive verbs to transitive ones; as, *be-speak, be-think.*

3. To form transitive verbs out of adjectives and nouns; as, *be-friend, be-night, be-troth.*

For = through, thoroughly, used to intensify the meaning of the verb; as, *for-bid, for-give, for-get.*

Fore = before; as, *fore-bode, fore-tell.*

Mis = wrongly; as, *mis-believe, mis-call.*
Un = back; as, *un-bind, un-do.*
With = back, against; as, *with-draw, with-stand.*

489. Those used to form adverbs:

A = on; as, *a-foot, a-field.*
Be = on; as, *be-fore, be-sides.*

EXERCISE 52.—*Form derivatives by placing prefixes before the following words, and classify the derivatives as nouns, adjectives, and verbs:*

rest	fair	trust	kind
even	dress	speak	call
castle	believe	hold	rise
fall	stand	numb	give
speak	hap	conduct	cloud

EXERCISE 53.—*What is the force of the prefixes in* **bedaub, forlorn, forewarn, misshapen, unwise, unroll, forgive.**

LATIN PREFIXES.

490. Latin prefixes frequently vary their forms in composition, the final letter being changed to harmonize in sound with the first syllable of the base. Thus, *ad* becomes *ac*, in *accede; al* in *allude; at* in *attract*, and so on. This process is called **assimilation of sound.**

491. The following are the more commonly used prefixes of Latin origin:

A, ab, abs = from, away; as, *a-vert, ab-jure, abs-ent.*
Ad = to; as, *ad-here.* By assimilation *ad* takes the forms *a, ac, af, al, an, ap, as,* and *at;* as, *a-spire, ac-cord, af-fect, al-lude, an-nex, ap-peal, as-sume, at-tract.*

Amb, am (from *ambi*) = about; as, *amb-ition, am-putate.*

Ante or ***anti*** = before; as, *ante-date, anti-cipate.*

Bis, bi = twice; as, *bi-sect.*

Circum = around; as, *circum-navigate.*

Com, con = together; as, *com-mand, con-vivial.* This prefix assumes the forms *col* and *cor* before *l* and *r* and *co* before a vowel; as, *col-lect, cor-rect, com-mit, co-eval, co-worker.*

Contra, contro, or ***counter*** = against; as, *contra-dict, contro-vert, counter-act.*

De = down, from, about; as, *de-scend, de-part, de-scribe.*

Demi = half; as, *demi-god.*

Dis, di, dif = apart, in two, denoting difference or negation; as, *dis-sent, di-vision, dif-ficulty.*

Ex, e, or ***ef*** = out of, from; as, *ex-alt, e-lect, ef-face.*

Extra = out of, beyond; as, *extra-ordinary.*

In = in, into; as, *in-vade.* This prefix changes by assimilation into *il, im, ir;* as, *il-lustrate, im-merse, ir-ritate.* In its French form *en,* it is found in *en-chant, en-dure,* etc.

In = not; by assimilation *il, im, ir;* as, *in-cautious, il-legal, im-piety, ir-revocable.*

Inter, intro = between, within, among; as, *inter-pose, intro-duce, enter-prise.*

Male = ill; as, *mal-treat, male-volent.*

Non = not; as, *non-sense.*

Ob = in front of, against; by assimilation, *oc, of, op;* as, *ob-viate, oc-cupy, of-fend, op-pose.*

Pene, pen = almost; as, *pen-insula.*

Per = through; by assimilation, *pel* and *pil;* as, *per-ceive, pel-lucid, pil-grim.*

Post = after; as, *post-pone, post-script.*

Pre = before; as, *pre-dict, pre-cede.*

Preter = past, beyond; as, *preter-ite, preter-natural.*

Pro = forward, before; as, *pro-ceed, pro-gress.* *Pro* is found in the forms *pur* and *por* in *purchase, pursue, portray.*

Pro = instead of; as, *pro-noun.*

Re, red = back, again; as, *re-cede, re-adopt, red-olent.*

Retro = backwards; as, *retro-grade, retro-spect.*

Se, sed = apart, away; as, *se-cede, sed-ition.*

Semi = half; as, *semi-circle.*

Sine = without; as, *sine-cure.*

Sub = under, up from below; by assimilation, before *c, f, g, m, p, r, s, suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur, sus;* as, *sub-ject, suc-cor, suf-fer, sug-gest, sum-mon, sup-press, sur-prise, sus-tain.*

Subter = under; as, *subter-fuge.*

Super, sur = above, beyond; as, *super-pose, super-natural, sur-name.*

Trans = across; as, *trans-form.*

Ultra = beyond; as, *ultra-liberal.*

Un, uni = one; as, *un-animous, uni-form.*

Vice = instead of; as, *vice-chancellor, vice-roy.*

Greek Prefixes.

492. The following are the Greek prefixes in most common use:

A, an = not; as, *an-archy, a-morphous.*

Amphi = on both sides, round about; as, *amphi-bious, amphi-theater.*

Ana = up, back; as, *ana-tomy, ana-lysis.*

Anti = against, opposite to; as, *anti-dote, ant-arctic.*

Apo, ap = away from; as, *apo-state, apo-stle, ap-helion.*

Archi, arche, arch = first, chief; as, *archi-tect, arche-type, arch-bishop.*

Auto, auth = self; as, *auto-crat, auto-nomy, auth-entic.*

Cata, cat = down, over; as, *cata-logue, cat-echism.*

Dia = through, across; as, *dia-meter, dia-gonal.*

Dis, di = twice; as, *dis-syllable, di-phthong.*

Dys = ill; as, *dys-peptic.*

Ec, ex = out of; as, *ec-centric, ex-odus.*

En, el, em = in, on, at; as, *en-comium, el-lipse, em-phasis.*

Epi = upon; as, *epi-taph, epi-demic.*

Eu, ev = well; as, *eu-logy, ev-angelist.*

Hemi = half; as, *hemi-sphere.*

Hyper = over, above; as, *hyper-bole, hyper-critical.*

Hypo = under; as, *hypo-crite.*

Meta, met = after, changed for; as, *meta-phor, met-onymy.*

Mono = alone; as, *mono-gram, mono-poly.*

Pan = all; as, *pan-acea, pan-orama.*

Para, par = beside, against; as, *para-dox, par-enthesis.*

Peri = around; as, *peri-meter, peri-gee, peri-helion.*

Poly = many; as, *poly-gamy, poly-gon, poly-technic.*

Pro = before; as, *pro-phet, pro-logue.*

Syn, syl, sym, sy = with; as, *syn-tax, syl-lable, sym-pathy, sy-stem.*

English Suffixes.

493. The principal English suffixes are the following:

1. Those forming abstract nouns:

Dom, denoting judgment, authority, dominion; as, *wis-dom, free-dom, king-dom.*

Hood, head, denoting state, rank, character; as, *man-hood, god-head.*

Ing, denoting action, state; as, *read-ing, hear-ing.*

Ness, denoting state, quality; as, *good-ness, great-ness.*

Red, denoting mode, fashion; as, *hat-red, kind-red.*

Ship, denoting shape, manner, form; as, *friend-ship, worship* = *worth-ship.*

Th, d, t; as, *weal-th, tru-th; thef-t,* from *thieve; dee-d,* from *do.*

Note.—Many nouns ending in the suffixes mentioned above are used in a concrete, as well as in an abstract, sense.

2. Those used in forming diminutives:

En; as, *maid-en, kitt-en* (from *cat*), *kitch-en* (from *cook*).

Ie; as, *bird-ie, dog-g-ie, Ann-ie.*

Ing; as, *farth-ing* (from *fourth*), *tith-ing* (from *tenth*).

Kin; as, *bump-kin, lamb-kin, nap-kin.*

Ling; as, *dar-ling, duck-ling, gos-ling.*

Ock; as, *bull-ock, hill-ock.*

3. Miscellaneous:

Er, ar, or, ier, yer, denoting the agent or doer; as, *paint-er, begg-ar, sail-or, cloth-ier, law-yer.*

Ster (formerly a feminine suffix), denoting a female agent; as, *spin-ster;* also an agent of either sex; as, *huck-ster, malt-ster.* It is also used as a term of depreciation; as, *game-ster, young-ster.*

Ard, art, characterizing a person by a peculiarity; as, *cow-ard, drunk-ard, brag-g-art.*

Le, el, denoting an instrument; as, *gird-le, hand-le, shov-el.*

Ther, marking the agent and used in terms of relationship; as, *fa-ther, daugh-ter, mo-ther.*

Ther is also found in other nouns under the forms *-ther, -der, -ter;* as, *fea-ther, blad-der, laugh-ter.*

Craft, denoting skill, a trade; as, *book-craft, wood-craft.*

Fare, denoting way, course; as, *thorough-fare, wel-fare.*

Ric, denoting power, dominion; as, *bishop-ric.*

Wright, a workman; as, *wheel-wright, play-wright.*

Monger, a dealer; as, *news-monger.*

EXERCISE 54.—*Form nouns from the following words by adding suffixes, and classify the derivatives as abstract, diminutive, and concrete common nouns:*

hard	lie	steal	direct
fellow	swim	meek	great
martyr	law	revel	high
weigh	girl	book	hardy
draw	child	lance	free
leaf	holy	idle	friend
cat	true	dig	sail

EXERCISE 55.—*Point out the force of the suffixes in the following words:*

kindred	goodness	porter	freedom	bullock
Willie	worship	truth	writing	womanhood
hireling	wisdom	shovel	maltster	teacher

EXERCISE 56.—*From what words and by the addition of what suffixes are the following derived:*

deed	seed	farthing	shuttle	spinster
hatred	theft	wealth	gosling	mannikin

494. Those used in forming adjectives:

Ed, d, the suffix of the past participle, is added to nouns to form adjectives; as, *wing-ed, talent-ed, bright-eye-d, golden-hair-ed.*

En = made of; as, *wood-en, gold-en.*

Fast = fast, firm; as, *stead-fast, shame-faced* = *shame-fast,* which is the old form of the word.

Fold, denoting multiplication; as, *two-fold, mani-fold.*

Ful = full; as, *hate-ful, will-ful.*

Ing, the suffix of the present participle; as, *pleas-ing, annoy-ing.*

Ish = like, when added to nouns; as, *boy-ish, girl-ish;* when added to adjectives, the suffix means "somewhat," "rather"; as, *black-ish, green-ish.*

Less = loose from, without; as, *fear-less, shame-less.* This suffix has no connection with the comparative of *little.*

Like = like; as, *child-like, war-like.*

Ly = like; as, *man-ly, sick-ly.* This suffix is a softened form of the preceding.

Some = like, partaking of a certain quality; as, *glad-some, loath-some.* This suffix is found in a corrupt form in *buxom, flotsam,* and *jetsam.*

Teen, ty = ten; as in the numerals.

Th, ordinal; as, *fif-th, six-th.*

Ward = becoming, leading to; as, *south-ward, for-ward.*

Wise = mode, way, manner; as, *like-wise, other-wise.*

Y, ey = of the nature of; as, *ic-y, clay-ey.*

EXERCISE 57.—*Form adjectives by adding suffixes to the following words, and explain the force of each suffix used:*

fog	hand	nine
dew	grace	wheat
brother	fear	flax
shade	frolic	wool
like	hurt	tear
neighbor	wood	woman
slave	red	house

495. Those used in forming verbs:

En, imparting the idea of cause, forms transitive verbs from nouns and adjectives; as, *strength-en*, *black-en*, *fat-t-en*.

Er, r, is added to adjectives and verbs, and imparts to the base word a frequentative and intensive force; as, *hind-er*, *low-er*, *wand-er* (from *wend*), *glimm-er* (from *gleam*).

Le, l, is added to nouns and verbs, and imparts to the base word the sense of frequency, or diminution; as, *nest-le*, *thrott-le* (from *throat*), *start-le*, *stradd-le* (from *stride*).

K, frequentative; as, *tal-k* (from *tell*), *har-k* (from *hear*).

Se, to make, forms transitive verbs from adjectives; as, *clean-se*. This suffix is also found in a modified form in such words as *clasp* = *clapse*, *grasp* = *grabse*, and *lisp* = *lipse*.

EXERCISE 58.—*By the addition of suffixes form verbs from the following words, and explain the force of each suffix:*

clean	sweet	knee
glad	height	muff
straight	red	sniff
nest	fresh	gleam

EXERCISE 59.—*What are the bases and the suffixes of the following words:*

throttle	straddle	wander	glimmer	bluster
heighten	sparkle	blacken	fatten	cleanse
talk	hark	clasp	grasp	lisp

496. Those used to form adverbs:

Es or ***s***, the old suffix of the possessive case; as in *needs, besides, thence, unawares.*

Ere, denoting place in; as, *here* (related to *he*), *there* (related to *that*), *where* (related to *who*).

Ly, a softened form of *like;* as, *only, utterly, wickedly.*

Ling, long, denoting direction; as in *dark-ling, head-long, side-long.*

Ther, denoting place to; as, *hither, thither, whither.*

Ward, wards, denoting direction; as, *homeward, backwards.*

Wise, mode or manner; as, *likewise, otherwise.*

Way, ways. In Old English the accusative (objective case) of nouns was sometimes used with the force of an adverb. Hence the adverbs *al-way, straight-way.* The general use of the possessive suffix *-es* or *-s* to form adverbs, is accountable for the forms *always, straightways, sideways.*

EXERCISE 60.—*Form adverbs from:*

mighty	that	cheery	down
graceful	head	handsome	like
one	silly	home	other

LATIN SUFFIXES.

497. The principal suffixes of Latin origin are the following:

498. Those used to form nouns:

1. Those forming abstract nouns:

Age = act, condition, collection of; as, *cour-age, hom-age, foli-age.*

Ance, ancy, ence, or ***ency*** = state or quality of being; as, *abund-ance, const-ancy, indulg-ence, consist-ency.*

Ice = that which; as, *just-ice.*

Ment = state of being, that which; as, *excite-ment, command-ment.* It is also used to denote *instrument*, as in *document, orna-ment.*

Mony = state of, that which; as, *acri-mony, testi-mony.*

Ion = the act of, state of being; as, *redempt-ion, evas-ion, act-ion.*

Tude, denoting condition; as, *forti-tude, grati-tude.*

Ty = state or quality of; as, *chari-ty, cruel-ty.*

Ure or ***cur*** = state of, that which; as, *grand-eur, creat-ure.*

Y, denoting condition or faculty; as, *miser-y, victor-y, emor-y.*

2. Those denoting simply a person, or one who performs the action signified by the base:

Ain or ***an*** = connected with; as, *artis-an, chapl-ain.*

Ant or ***ent*** = one who; as, *assist-ant, stud-ent.*

Ary, ier, eer, or ***er*** = one who; as, *secret-ary, brigad-ier, engin-eer, marin-er.*

Ate = one who; as, *advoc-ate, cur-ate.* In the French form *ee* or *e*, this suffix denotes the object of an action; as, *legat-ee, nomin-ee, employ-e.*

Ist = one who practices or is devoted to; as, *evangel-ist, theor-ist.*

Or or ***er*** = one who; as, *conspirat-or, success-or, doct-or, preach-er.*

Trix, denoting a female agent; as, *execu-trix.*

3. Those forming diminutives:

El or ***le;*** as, *libel* (from *liber*, a book), *castle* (from *castrum*, a fort).

Cle or ***cule;*** as, *vesi-cle, animal-cule*

Ule; as, *globule.*

Ette or ***let;*** as, *ros-ette, stream-let.*

4. Those forming collective nouns:

Ry; as, *yeoman-ry.*

499. Those used in forming adjectives:

Aceous or ***acious*** = made of, having the quality of; as, *farin-aceous, cap-acious.*

Al = belonging to; as, *leg-al, reg-al.*

An, ane, or ***ain*** = connected with; as, *hum-an, hum-ane, cert-ain.*

Ar or ***er*** = belonging to; as, *regul-ar, premi-er.*

Ary, arious = relating or belonging to; as, *station-ary, greg-arious.*

Able or ***ible*** = that may be done; as, *port-able, sens-ible.*

Ant or ***ent,*** equivalent to the force of the present participle inflection *ing;* as, *discord-ant, curr-ent.*

Escent = becoming; as, *putr-escent.*

Esque = partaking of; as, *pictur-esque.*

Ic = belonging to; as, *civ-ic, rust-ic.*

Id = having the quality of; as, *acr-id, frig-id.*

Ile, il, eel, or ***le*** = capable of being; as, *doc-ile, civ-il, gent-eel, ab-le.*

Ine = belonging to; as, *can-ine, sal-ine.*

Ive = inclined to; as, *plaint-ive, abus-ive.*

Ory = fitted or relating to; as, *admonit-ory.*

Ose or ***ous*** = full of; as, *verb-ose, curi-ous.*

500. Those used in forming verbs:

Ate = to perform the act of, cause; as, *navig-ate*

Fy = to make; as, *beautify, magnify.*

Ish = to make; as, *finish.*

Greek Suffixes.

Ic = belonging to; as, *aromat-ic, graph-ic.*

Isk, a diminutive; as, *aster-isk, obel-isk.*

Ize or ***ise,*** forming verbs; as, *anglic-ize, critic-ise.*

St = agent; as, *bapti-st, botani-st.*

Y, making abstract nouns; as, *philosoph-y, monarch-y.*

501. As a general rule, all the parts of a derivative word are of like origin. An English prefix or suffix is joined to an English base; a Latin prefix or suffix, to a Latin base; a Greek prefix or suffix, to a Greek base.

WORD-ANALYSIS.

502. The analysis (*ly*, *lu* = loosen, and *ana* = back, up) of a word is the resolution of it into its component elements.

503. In analyzing a word, the following steps should be taken:

1. Give the class name of the composite word to be analyzed.
2. Name and describe the base.
3. Name and describe the adjunct or adjuncts.

MODELS OF WORD ANALYSIS.

RAILROAD.

CLASS: Compound word.
BASE: Simple word *road*.
ADJUNCT: Simple word *rail*.
MEANING: A *road* upon which *rails* are laid.

RECALL.

CLASS: Derivative word.
BASE: Simple word *call*.
ADJUNCT: Prefix *re* = *back*.
MEANING: To *call back*.

AUTOGRAPH.

CLASS: A stem-compound word.
BASE: Stem *graph* = write.
ADJUNCT: Stem *auto* = self.
MEANING: A signature or document *written* by the party *himself*.

EXPAND.

CLASS: A stem-derivative word.
BASE: Stem *pand* = spread.
ADJUNCT: Prefix *ex* = out.
MEANING: To *spread out*.

MODEL OF PROGRESSIVE ANALYSIS.

INCOMPLETENESS.

CLASS: Derivative word.
BASE: Derivative word *incomplete*.
ADJUNCT: Suffix *ness*, signifying *state* or *quality*.
MEANING: The *state* or *quality* of being *incomplete*.

INCOMPLETE.

CLASS: Derivative word.
BASE: Stem-derivative word *complete*.
ADJUNCT: Prefix *in* = *not*.
MEANING: *Not complete*.

COMPLETE.

CLASS: Stem-derivative word.
BASE: Stem *plet*, signifying *filled*.
ADJUNCT: Prefix *com*, signifying *together*.
MEANING: *Filled together*, hence *finished*.

504. In ascertaining the meaning of a word from an analysis of its component elements, it should be remembered that it may be used with several different shades of meaning, and that these may all be traced back to the meanings of the component elements.

EXERCISE 61.—*Analyze each of the following words, use each in a sentence, and from its use tell the part of speech.*

abduct	accept	compensate	inaugurate
abbreviate	accident	competent	indorse
aberration	accommodate	defend	jurisdiction
abject	antipathy	demonstrate	liberate
ablution	apprehend	educate	motion
abnegation	benefactor	encyclopædia	nominate
abnormal	capital	febrifuge	opposite
abominable	captive	fervent	paragraph
abrupt	centigrade	geography	quantity
abscond	centrifugal	hereditary	retard
adulterate	centripetal	humility	soluble

NOTE TO TEACHERS.—That more exercises are not given on this important subject, is due to the fact that every reading lesson furnishes them in abundance; and the best way to study the meaning of words through analysis is to take them as they come in reading. Analysis, however, seldom furnishes a complete guide to the meaning of a word. It should be supplemented by the method by particulars, the method by induction, and the other methods with which all good teachers are supposed to be familiar.

CHAPTER V.

SYNTAX.

505. DEFINITION.—**Syntax** is that part of grammar which treats of the way in which words are joined in sentences. (See §§ **98, 99.**)

Under the head of Syntax will be considered, (1) the elements of the sentence, (2) the classification of sentences according to the manner in which these elements are arranged, (3) the three leading principles, *Concord*, *Government*, and *Order*, that determine the relations of words in sentences, (4) elliptical sentences, (5) punctuation, (6) the analysis (§ **61**) of sentences into their component elements.

506. A sentence is a group of words used as a statement, a question, a command, or an entreaty. (See §§ **1–10.**)

507. The elements of a sentence are the parts of which it is composed.

508. Classified according to structure, the elements of a sentence are **words, phrases** (§ **58**), and **clauses** (§ **59**).

509. Classified according to office, the elements of a sentence are as follows:

(*a*) IN ALL SENTENCES.
1. Subject.
2. Predicate.

(*b*) NOT IN ALL SENTENCES.
3. Complements of the verb. Predicate. Objective.
4. Supplements of the verb.
5. Adjective modifiers.
6. Adverbial modifiers.
7. Independent elements.
8. Connectives.

510. When two or more words, phrases, or clauses perform the same office in a sentence, and bear the same relation to some other word, they are said to be ***co-ordinate.***

A word, a phrase, or a clause is said to be ***subordinate*** to the sentence of which it forms a part, and, if a modifier, to the word whose meaning is modified.

The sentence is said to be ***principal*** to any of its included elements. The word whose meaning is modified is said to be ***principal*** to its modifier.

Subject and Predicate.

511. Every sentence consists of two parts, the **subject** and the **predicate.**

512. The subject of a sentence denotes that about which something is said.

513. The predicate of a sentence is that which is said of the thing denoted by the subject.

(See §§ **11–15,** and work again Exercise 2.)

514. The subject of a sentence may be a noun or its equivalent, either with or without adjective modifiers.

Rivers *run into the sea.*
A good name *is rather to be chosen than great riches.*

515. The equivalents of a noun are:

1. A pronoun.

He *is worthy of honor.*
We *live in North America*

2. An infinitive or infinitive phrase. (See § **58.**)

To be *contents his natural desire.*
To read well *requires much practice.*

3. A gerund. (See § **373.**)

Hunting *the bear is dangerous sport.*
Walking *is a healthful exercise.*

4. An adjective used as a noun.

***The good** alone are great.*

5. A noun clause. (See § **59.**)

***What he said** made us change our plans.*
***That he suffered** was evident.*
***Whether you go or not** is of no consequence.*

516. Some grammarians distinguish between the *grammatical* subject and the *entire*, or *logical*, subject of a sentence. By the *grammatical* subject is meant the noun, or its equivalent, that is the subject of the verb in the predicate. By the *entire*, or *logical*, subject is meant the grammatical subject, accompanied by modifiers. In this work, the term **subject** is used to denote the *entire*, or *logical*, subject; and the term **subject noun, pronoun, phrase,** or **clause,** as the case may be, is used to distinguish the grammatical subject from the entire, or logical, subject.

EXERCISE 62.—*Point out all the subjects of sentences in the selections given in Exercise* 40, *and tell of what each subject consists.*

517. The predicate always consists of, or contains, a finite verb. (See § **358.**)

*We **eat.** They **are sleeping.** Horses **eat** grass. She **is** beautiful.*

518. The term **predicate** is used to denote both the finite verb that makes the assertion, and, if there be any, all the complements and modifiers of that verb. This is often called the *entire*, or *logical*, predicate. The term **predicate verb** is used to designate the simple verb as distinguished from the *predicate*, consisting of verb and modifiers.

COMPLEMENTS OF THE VERB.

519. Many verbs do not alone, when joined with subjects, form complete predicates. They require

complements, that is, some word or words to *fill out* the meaning. Complements are of two kinds, **predicate complements** and **objective complements.**

520. Most *intransitive verbs* (§ **340**) may form predicates without the aid of other words; as, *They* ***sleep,*** *The child* ***plays.*** *Incomplete intransitive verbs* (§§ **344–8**), however, require **predicate** complements; as, *The child is* ***asleep,*** *The young tree becomes* ***stronger.*** The most common verbs of this class are *appear*, *be*, *become*, *feel*, *look*, *seem*, *smell*, and *taste.*

521. The predicate complement of an incomplete intransitive verb may be:

1. A noun or a pronoun.

   Socrates was a ***philosopher.*** *This is* ***he.***

2. An adjective.

   The wall is ***high.*** *They became* ***wise.***

3. A phrase.

   (1) Infinitive.

   The ship seems ***to sail very fast.***

   (2) Prepositional.

   The boy is ***in the yard.***

4. A noun clause.

   This book seems ***what I have long wanted.***

522. The noun, pronoun, etc., that forms the complement of an *incomplete intransitive verb* is called the **predicate noun, adjective, phrase,** or **clause,** as the case may be, because it *completes* the *predication*, or assertion, made by the verb. It is really a modifier of the subject, brought into connection therewith, by the help of the verb. Hence it is called, by some grammarians, the *subjective complement;* by some, the *predicate nominative;* and by others, the *attribute.*

523. Some verbs in the passive voice require a complement; as, *He was deemed* ***wise.*** *The boy was named* ***John.***

524. Distinguish carefully between an adjective used as *complement*, and an adverb that modifies the meaning of a verb.

The flowers smell ***sweet*** (adj.). *The bird sings* ***sweetly*** (adv.). *The child grows* ***pretty*** (adj.). *The flowers are* ***prettily*** *arranged* (adv.).

When the meaning of the verb is to be modified, use an adverb. When the meaning of the subject is to be modified, the complement must be an adjective, or a noun or its equivalent.

EXERCISE 63.—*In the following sentences, distinguish the cases in which the verb is accompanied by a predicate complement, and those in which it is accompanied by an adverbial modifier.*

1. The water tastes warm. 2. Washington is called the Father of his country. 3. Man became a living soul. 4. He is anxious to succeed. 5. The man was considered a miser. 6. Good boys make good men. 7. Be not weary in well-doing. 8. Become a scholar worthy of your privileges. 9. Who became president? 10. The cry sounded clear and shrill. 11. His voice sounded feebly. 12. The milk turned sour. 13. Fast and furious grew the fun. 14. The dog went mad. 15. He was ordered to sit down. 16. He was found to be right. 17. This kind of life is not to be endured. 18. Who is he?

525. Transitive verbs (§ **339**) in the active voice (§ **353**) can not of themselves form a complete predicate. The word or words denoting that which receives the action of the verb, form the complement. The complement of a transitive verb is called the **object.** The object may be:

1. A noun or a pronoun.

Cats catch ***mice.*** *We honor* ***him.***

2. An infinitive, or an infinitive noun phrase.

Boys love ***to play.***
The gentleman told ***his servant to wait.***
They thought ***him*** *(to be)* ***their friend.***

3. A gerund. (See § **373.**)

We enjoy ***sailing*** *on the river.*

4. An adjective used as a noun.

Pity ***the poor.***

5. A noun clause. (See § **59.**)

I know ***that you are to blame.***
Give ***what you have.***
We do not know ***where he is.***

526. Many grammarians distinguish a *direct object*, an *indirect object*, and a *factitive object*. Every transitive verb requires a direct object. Verbs of *giving, promising, refusing, telling*, they tell us, take both a direct and an indirect object; as, *He gave* ***her*** *the book; She refused* ***him*** *his request.* In these sentences *her* and *him* are said to be the *indirect objects* of *gave* and *refused*. As *her* and *him* undoubtedly represent an old dative case, that is no longer distinguished by an inflection, there is good ground, as well as excellent authority, for taking this view of the construction. We think it, however, more in harmony with the genius of the language in its present condition to regard the words as *adverbial modifiers* of the verb, the equivalents of adverbial phrases—*(to) her, (to) him.*

527. Verbs of *making, creating, appointing, choosing*, etc., are said to take not only *direct objects*, but *factitive* (fac = make) *objects*. The *factitive object* is said to denote the product of the action denoted by the verb; as, *We made him* ***president;*** *They elected him* ***mayor.*** We prefer to call the noun or the adjective that denotes the product of the action denoted by the verb, the ***supplement.*** (See § **528.**) There is no objection, however, to calling this noun or adjective the ***factitive object.***

EXERCISE 64.—*Pick out all the transitive verbs in the active voice in Exercise* 48, *give the object of each, and tell of what it consists.*

The Supplement of a Verb.

528. Some transitive verbs take not only an *objective* complement, but a **supplement**; as *He made the door* ***fast.***

In this sentence the adjective *fast* modifies meaning of *door*, and at the same time *supplements* the meaning of the verb by defining the action performed on *door*. The meaning would be the same if we said, *He fastened the door.*

A noun or pronoun used in this way is said to be a *supplement* of the verb, and an *appositive modifier* of the *object.* (See § **532**.)

Other examples are: *He painted the house* ***red,*** *We called him a* ***genius,*** *The officer struck the soldier* ***dead,*** *The boys in the gallery shouted themselves* ***hoarse.*** When the verbs in such sentences are used in the passive voice, the *supplement* becomes a *predicate complement;* as, *The house was painted* ***red,*** *He was called a* ***genius*** *by us, The soldier was struck* ***dead*** *by the officer.*

This construction must, however, be distinguished from that in such a sentence as, *They found him dead.* Here *dead* is an appositive adjective modifier of *him*, but it does not become so through the help of the verb. Hence it is not a supplement.

Adjective Modifiers.

529. The meaning of a noun or its equivalent may be modified (See §§ **26–27**) by an adjective or its equivalent.

530. The equivalents of an adjective are:

1. A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case.

My bark is on the wave.
The ***mountain's*** *crest towered above us.*

2 A noun in apposition.

Longfellow, the ***poet,*** *was greatly beloved.*

3. An adjective phrase.

(*a*) Infinitive.

The desire ***to please*** *is praiseworthy.*

(*b*) Participial.

The boy, ***having finished his task,*** *went to play*

(*c*) Prepositional.

The harp ***of Tara*** *is silent.*

4. An adjective clause.

A man ***that is true to himself,*** *will always be true to others.*
The place ***whereon you stand,*** *is holy ground.*

Several modifiers may be attached to the same noun; as, ***A wise, just,*** *and* ***experienced*** *statesman.*

531. For the various forms and uses of the possessive cases of nouns and pronouns, see §§ **202–208, 240–245,** and **267.**

Preceding a gerund, a noun or a pronoun indicates the subject of the action denoted by the verbal; as, *I was surprised at* ***John's*** (his, your) *winning the race.* In this construction it is incorrect to use the noun or pronoun in the objective case; as, *I was surprised at John* (him, you) *winning the race.*

532. An adjective, or its equivalent, may modify the meaning of a noun in three ways:

1. As an **attributive modifier**; as, *The* ***brown*** *horse, The* ***tall*** *chimney.* Here a certain quality is *attributed,* or *attached,* to the name of an object. The adjective becomes part of the description of the object.

2. As a **predicate adjective.** In *The brown horse is* ***fast,*** the quality of *fastness* is predicated or asserted of *the brown horse;* and hence the adjective modifies the subject noun by the help of the verb.

3. As an **appositive modifier.** The type of this modifier is a noun in apposition (*ad* = to, *posit* = placed). In the sentence, *The aged man,* ***stiff*** *with rheumatism and* ***spent*** *with toil, hobbled painfully along,* we have in *stiff* and *spent* examples of adjective modifiers, so nearly akin to the noun in apposition,

that they may be called **appositive**. The **appositive** is merely a looser, more indirect, relation to a noun, than that of the attributive modifier.

The appositive modifier is easily changed into an adjective clause: *The aged man, who was stiff*, etc.

An adjective, accompanying a pronoun, is generally used appositively: *He, **courted** and **flattered**, soon lost his senses.* Participles are nearly always used appositively; and, as already explained (§ **528**), the supplement of a transitive verb is always an appositive modifier of the object.

Adverbial Modifiers.

533. The meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, may be modified by an adverb or its equivalent. *The boat sails **swiftly**. The speech was **highly** effective. She sang **very** charmingly.*

534. The equivalents of an adverb are:

1. A noun in the objective case, called an *adverbial objective*, the equivalent of an adverbial phrase, denoting time, etc. (See § **209.**)

*We rode ten **miles**. The book cost a **dollar**. The watch is worth fifty **dollars**. The sermon lasted an **hour**.*

2. A noun or a pronoun in the objective case, representing an old *dative* case, and generally denoting that *to* or *for* which something is done, the equivalent of an adverbial phrase. (See § **526.**)

*He gave **James** a book. She wrote **him** a letter. I bought **me** a house. He looks like **me**.*

3. A noun in the nominative absolute, accompanied by a participle. (See §§ **195, 200.**)

***Spring having come**, the birds build their nests.*

4. An adverbial phrase:

(*a*) Prepositional; as, *He rides **on a bicycle**.*

(*b*) Infinitive; as, *He was anxious **to make a start**.*
*They came **to scoff**; they remained **to pray**.*

5. An adverbial clause:

I shall come ***when I am ready.*** *He ran to the rescue* ***as fast as he could.***

535. Two or more adverbial modifiers may be attached to the same verb, adverb, or adjective; as,

She sang ***gayly and with great expression.***

EXERCISE 65.—*In the selections given in Exercise 49, point out all the adverbial modifiers, tell to which class each belongs, and what word each modifies.*

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

536. Independent elements are words that have no immediate relation with other words in the sentence. They are:

1. A noun in the nominative case by address. (See §**200.**)
2. An adverb or a conjunction used to connect a sentence with a preceding sentence; as, *The messenger,* ***however,*** *was not sincere.*
3. Interjections. (See §§**41-42.**)
4. Phrases used independently; as, ***To say the least,*** *his conduct is very extraordinary.*

537. Connectives are conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, and relative pronouns.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

538. According to their use, sentences are classified as: 1. **Declarative**; 2. **Interrogative**; 3. **Imperative.**

(See §§ **2-10.** Work again Exercise 1.)

539. According to their structure, sentences are classified as **Simple, Complex,** and **Compound.**

540. DEFINITION.—A **simple sentence** is a sentence containing one subject and one predicate, either of which may be compound.

541. The simple sentence may contain any or all of the elements of a sentence except the clause.

(For various forms of the simple sentence, see §§ **65-68.** Work again Exercise 16.)

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

542. DEFINITION.—A **complex sentence** is a sentence that contains one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

(Read §§ **69-72,** and work again Exercise 17.)

543. A subordinate clause may perform in a sentence the function of a noun, of an adjective, or of an adverb. Hence, subordinate clauses are classified as **noun clauses, adjective clauses,** and **adverbial clauses.**

When the **subordinate** clause is a **noun** clause, the **principal** clause is generally the entire sentence. When the **subordinate** clause is adjective or adverbial, the **principal** clause is generally that which contains the word whose meaning is modified by the **subordinate** clause.

THE NOUN CLAUSE.

544. A **noun clause** is a clause that performs the function of a noun.

545. A noun clause may be used:

1. As the subject of a sentence: ***That he is honest*** *appears evident.* ***Where he is buried*** *has never been discovered.*

2. As the object of a verb or of a preposition: *I saw* ***that he was at home.*** *We do not know* ***where he is hiding.*** *He does not know* ***what we are doing.*** *He was earnest in* ***what he undertook.***

3. As predicate complement after an incomplete intransitive verb: *Things are not* ***what they seem.***

4. In apposition: *The fact,* ***that he was there,*** *was soon known. We had a hope* ***that he might come.***

NOTE.—In the last sentence, some regard the clause as the object of the action implied in the noun *hope*, equivalent to *we hoped that he would come.*

546. Noun clauses are introduced:

1. By the relative pronoun *what;* as, *I know* ***what*** *you would say.*

2. By the compound relative pronouns; as, ***Whoever*** *would be happy, must be pure and just.*

3. By the interrogative pronouns *who, which,* and *what;* as, *I inquired* ***who was there.*** (See § **278.**)

4. By the conjunctive adverbs *where, when, whence, whither, whether,* etc.; as, *Thou canst not tell* ***whence*** *it* (the wind) *comes, or* ***whither*** *it goeth.*

5. By subordinate conjunctions. (See §§ **463-4.**)

547. The conjunction *that* is sometimes omitted: *I know you are to blame = I know* ***that*** *you are to blame.*

548. Frequently a noun clause is the real subject of a verb, when it is temporarily represented by the pronoun *it;* as, *It is evident* ***that the Governor should sign the bill.*** In such cases the clause is in apposition with the pronoun.

549. In the sentence, *I do not doubt but that he will succeed,* the *but* is unnecessary, and its use is improper.

550. In the sentence, *The train would have arrived on time, but that it met with an accident,* the noun clause *that it met with an accident* is the object of the preposition *but,* and the clause and preposition together form an adverbial modifier of the verb *would have arrived.*

551. A short quotation, containing a subject and predicate, when dependent upon a verb, may generally be regarded as a

noun clause; as, *He said "I am tired."* If, however, the quotation contains several sentences, each should be analyzed independently.

EXERCISE 66.—*Point out all the noun clauses in the following selections and give the syntax of each:*

1. I dreamed that Greece might still be free.—*Byron.*

2. I beg to say that I have not the least belief in the Noble Savage.

3. That human hearts are good in the main, is a true statement.

4. Write it on your heart that every day is the best day in the year.—*Emerson.*

5. I believe with the Persians that ten measures of talk were sent down from heaven, and that the ladies took nine.

6. Polonius's advice to his son was this: "Beware of entrance into quarrel."

7. That imitation is the sincerest flattery, has generally been acknowledged.

8. The important question is, what sciences ought to be taught in our schools?

9. Hearing that it was better to visit the ruins by moonlight, we started about eight o'clock.

10. It is a strange thing how little, people in general know about the sky.—*Ruskin.*

11. What can they see in the longest kingly line in Europe, save that it runs back to a successful soldier?—*Scott.*

12. Dr. Watts's statement that birds in their little nests agree, like too many others intended to form the infant mind, is very far from being true.—*Lowell.*

13. It would seem to have been especially ordered by Providence, that the discovery of the two great divisions of the American hemisphere should fall to the two races best fitted to conquer and colonize them.—*Prescott.*

14. It has been estimated that the quantity of heat discharged over the Atlantic from the waters of the Gulf Stream, on a winter's day, would be sufficient to raise the column of the atmosphere that rests upon France and the British Isles from the freezing point to summer heat.—*Maury.*

Adjective Clauses.

552. An **adjective clause** is a clause that performs the function of an adjective, that is, modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.

553. An *adjective clause* may be introduced by the relative pronoun *that*, or by *who, which, as*, when used restrictively. (See § **282.**)

The noun or pronoun whose meaning is modified by the adjective clause is always the antecedent of the relative; as, *Did you see the* ***tree that*** *was blasted by lightning? I do not like such pastry* ***as*** *she makes.*

The relative pronoun is often omitted; as, *I have found the house* (***that***) *I was looking for.*

554. An adjective clause may be introduced by a *conjunctive adverb*, such as *where* = ***in which*** *place; when* = ***at which*** *time; why* = ***on account of which,*** and some others, the equivalents of a relative pronoun and a preposition; as, *This is the house* ***where*** *I was born. He called at an hour* ***when*** *I could not see him. It is easy to find reasons* ***why*** *other people should be patient.*

555. Care must be taken to distinguish noun clauses, introduced by *who, when*, or *where*, from adjective clauses. Noun: *I do not know* ***when I shall start.*** Adjective: *I do not know the time* ***when I shall start.***

Adverbial Clauses.

556. An **adverbial clause** is a clause that performs in a sentence the function of an adverb, that is, modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

In the sentence, *He was sitting by the window, when the clock struck nine*, the clause *when the clock struck nine*, tells the time at which he was sitting by the window, and hence modifies the meaning of the verb.

557. Adverbial clauses may express various relations, of which the following are the most important:

1. Place. as, ***Wherever he went,*** *he was welcome.*

Such clauses are introduced by the conjunctive adverbs of place, *where, whither, whence, wherever,* etc. In the example given above, the clause is an adverbial modifier of the predicate *was welcome.*

2. Time: as, ***While you were speaking,*** *he left the room.*

Such clauses are introduced by the conjunctive adverbs of time, *when, while, whenever,* etc., and by the conjunctions of time, *before, after, since, ere, until, as soon as,* etc.

3. Manner: as, *We solve these problems* ***as we have been instructed.***

Such clauses are generally introduced by the conjunctive adverb *as.*

4. Degree: *The house is not so large* ***as we thought it was.***

Such clauses are introduced by the conjunction *than,* and the conjunctive adverbs *the* (§ **442**) and *as.* They are generally used to modify the meanings of adjectives and adverbs.

Adverbial clauses of degree are often elliptical: *There is nothing so kingly as kindness* (is kingly). *He is working harder than ever* (he worked).

Great care must be observed in the construction of sentences in which *than* or *as* is used as a term of comparison. We may say, *She loves him more than* ***I,*** *She loves him more than* ***me:*** but the first means *She loves him more than I love him;* and the second, *She loves him more than she loves me.*

As requires a correspondence, term for term, in the two clauses which it serves to unite: *He is not so tall as I* (am tall), not *He is not so tall as* ***me.*** Where both *than* and *as* [or *so*] are necessary to the comparison, neither of them should be omitted. *He is wiser but not so old as his brother,* should be, *He is wiser* ***than*** *his brother, but not* ***so*** *old.*

5. Cause: ***Because he was ambitious,*** *I slew him.*

Such clauses are introduced by the subordinate conjunctions *because, as, since, for,* etc.

6. Consequence: *He had run so fast,* ***that he was out of breath.***

A clause of consequence is often introduced by *so that.*

7. Purpose: *He studies* ***that he may become a scholar.***

Such clauses are introduced by the subordinate conjunctions *that, in order that, so that.*

8. Condition: ***If he were within call,*** *I should send him to the city.*

Such clauses are introduced by the subordinate conjunctions *if, unless, except,* etc.

9. Concession: ***Though we are beaten,*** *we have not lost our honor.*

For the use of the subjunctive mode in clauses of purpose, condition, and consequence, see § **363.** For a list of subordinate conjunctions, see § **464,** and for a list of conjunctive adverbs, see § **440.**

558. A subordinate clause in a complex sentence may itself be complex. In the sentence, *I think he will speedily recover if he is prudent,* the principal clause is *I think* (that) *he will speedily recover. That he will speedily recover* is a noun clause, the object of *think. If he is prudent* is an adverbial clause modifying the meaning of the verb *will recover.*

EXERCISE 67.—*In the following complex sentences, point out the principal clauses and the subordinate clauses, tell what kind of clause each of the latter is and what it modifies:*

1. There lies a vale in Ida, lovelier
   Than all the valleys of Ionian hills.—*Tennyson.*

2. To know
   That which before us lies in daily life
   Is the prime wisdom.—*Milton.*

3. Wherever English poetry is read and loved, Bryant's poems are known by heart.—*Hillard.*

4. Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,
   Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,
   Our hearts in glad surprise
   To higher levels rise.—*Longfellow.*

5. Any life that is worth living must be a struggle, a swimming not with, but against, the stream.—*Dean Stanley.*

6. When a man has not a good reason for doing a thing, he has one good reason for letting it alone.—*Sir Walter Scott.*

7. The generosity of a sea-sick sufferer in giving away the delicacies which seemed so desirable on starting, is not ranked very high on the books of the recording angel.—*O. W. Holmes.*

8. When heats as of a tropic clime
Burned all our inland valleys through,
Three friends, the guests of summer time,
Pitched their white tent where sea-winds blew.
—*Whittier.*

9. The metal for the Vendome Column was obtained by melting twelve hundred cannon, which had been captured from the Russians and Austrians.

10. Johnson was of the opinion that a man grows better as he grows older, and that his nature mellows with age.

Compound Sentences.

559. Definition.—A **compound sentence** is a sentence containing two or more principal, or independent, clauses.

In the compound sentence, two or more sentences that are grammatically independent are brought together into one, to give greater unity or force to the ideas expressed, or for the sake of comparison, contrast, etc.

The sentences that make up a compound sentence are called co-ordinate clauses, because, grammatically, they are of equal rank; as, *England levied taxes unjustly, and the Colonies rebelled.*

560. Co-ordinate clauses are generally connected by co-ordinate conjunctions (see §§ **461-2**), and compound sentences may be classified to correspond with the classes of co-ordinate conjunctions, as follows:

1. *Copulative*, in which a second clause or several clauses add something to the first without modifying its meaning. *And*

is the most common connective; as, *Hannibal crossed the Alps, and the Romans marched to meet him.* The connective is sometimes omitted; as, *Temperance promotes health; intemperance destroys it.* Under this head must be included sentences in which the relative pronoun has a co-ordinating force, that is, in which it is equivalent to a personal pronoun and a conjunction; as, *The knight threw down the glove, which* (= and it) *his adversary picked up.*

2. *Disjunctive*, in which two or more clauses are so joined as to imply the notion of an alternative. The connective is *or, nor, either—or, neither—nor;* as, *You must pay the money, or I will bring suit against you. The public did not appreciate his speeches, nor did his speeches please the public.*

3. *Adversative*, in which the co-ordinate clauses are in opposition to one another. The most common connective is *but;* as, *Men may come and men may go, but I go on forever.*

4. *Illative*, in which the second of two clauses denotes an effect or consequence of the first, or a conclusion from it; as, *He was honorable, therefore he was respected. I was too late for the train, so I returned home. The season was dry, hence the crops failed.*

561. Two or more of the preceding classes of sentences may be united in the same compound sentence; as,

> Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again;
> Th' eternal years of God are hers;
> But Error, wounded, writhes in pain,
> And dies among his worshipers.—*Bryant.*

562. Compound sentences are sometimes formed by joining together co-ordinate clauses that are themselves compound; as,

Trust men, and they will be true to you; treat them greatly, and they will show themselves great.—*Emerson.*

563. A compound sentence may have any or all of the sentences that compose it, complex; as,

> I know not where His islands lift
> Their fronded palms in air;
> I only know I can not drift
> Beyond His love and care.—*Whittier.*

We have seen, § **67**, that two or more simple sentences may be contracted into one simple sentence. The contraction may result in making the subject or the predicate, or both subject and predicate, or any of the other elements of a simple sentence, compound; as, *Enemies abroad and enemies at home oppressed and plundered us.*

It is sometimes difficult to determine, in the case of declarative and interrogative sentences, whether the sentence is simple with a compound subject, or whether it is really compound. Thus, *Mary swept the floor and washed the dishes*, is a simple sentence with compound predicate; but, *Mary swept the floor, and she washed the dishes*, is a compound sentence. The general rule is that where the conjunction connects words, the connected words form a compound element; where it connects clauses, the sentence is compound.

In the case of an imperative sentence, if there are two or more verbs in the imperative mode, the sentence is *compound*, because the subjects of the verbs being understood, the conjunction connects clauses; if there is only one, it is *simple*, unless it contains a subordinate clause. In the latter case it is *complex*. The following examples will illustrate:

SIMPLE: ***Tell** him to come and take my sword.*

COMPOUND: ***Come** and **see** my beautiful flowers.*

COMPLEX: ***Go** when the morning shineth.*

COMPOUND: ***Visit** us if you can, and **stay** as long as you desire.*

COMPLEX: ***Trust** him not, for he will never pay you.*

EXERCISE 68.—*In the following sentences point out the co-ordinate clauses, and state with regard to each whether it is simple, complex, or compound. If a clause is complex, point out the principal and the subordinate clauses, and give the syntax of each of the latter:*

1. Clever men are good; but they are not the best.—*Carlyle.*

2. I have found you an argument; I am not obliged to find you an understanding.—*Johnson.*

3. I slept and dreamed that life is Beauty;
I woke and found that life is Duty.

4. A tart temper never mellows with age; and a sharp tongue is the only edged tool that grows keener with constant use.—*Irving.*

5. A moral, sensible, and well-bred man
Will not affront me, and no other can.—*Cowper.*

6. The fountain of beauty is the heart, and every generous thought illustrates the walls of your chamber.—*Emerson.*

7. Years steal
Fire from the mind, as vigor from the limb;
And life's enchanted cup but sparkles near the brim.
—*Byron.*

8. The hearts of men are their books; events are their tutors; great actions are their eloquence.—*Macaulay.*

9. All actual heroes are essential men;
And all men, possible heroes.—*Mrs. Browning.*

10. Attack is the reaction; I never think I have hit hard unless it rebounds.—*Johnson.*

11. The boat reappeared, but brother and sister had gone down in an embrace never to be parted, living through again, in one supreme moment, the days when they had clasped their little hands in love and roamed the daisied fields together.—*George Eliot.*

12. Night's silvery veil hung low
On Jordan's bosom, and the eddies curled
Their glassy rings beneath it, like the still,
Unbroken beating of the sleeper's pulse.—*Willis.*

13. Here was the doom fixed: here is marked the date
When the New World awoke to man's estate.—*Lowell.*

14. The growing good of the world is partly dependent on unhistoric acts; and that things are not so ill with you and me as they might have been is half owing to the number who lived faithfully a hidden life, and who rest in unvisited tombs.—*George Eliot.*

CONCORD.

564. The three principles that regulate the grammatical union of words in sentences are **Concord, Government**, and **Order.**

565. DEFINITION.—**Concord** is the agreement in case, gender, number, person, mode, or tense, of two connected words.

CONCORD OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

566. A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person; and the subject of a finite verb, when a noun or a pronoun, is always in the nominative case.

The meaning of the first part of this rule is that a finite verb must have that grammatical form which shows that it is of the same person and number as its subject; as, *All* ***men admire*** *courage. A* ***man admires*** *courage. Thou* ***admirest*** *all beautiful things. I* ***am*** *to blame. They* ***are*** *to blame.*

The following special cases under this general rule require attention:

1. When a noun in the plural is used to denote a whole, a unit of some sort, as the title of a book, a sum of money, etc., the verb may be in the singular; as, *Plutarch's Lives* ***is*** *a good book. Five hundred dollars* ***was*** *spent.*

2. When a singular noun is modified by two adjectives, so as to mean two distinct things, the verb is in the plural; as, *Moral and physical education* ***are*** *both necessary.* Here *education* must be regarded as understood after *moral.*

3. A collective noun, denoting a group of objects regarded as *one* whole, takes a verb in the singular; but when the noun denotes a group regarded as individuals, it takes a verb in the plural; as, *The government* ***has*** *begun to turn its attention.*—SIDNEY SMITH. *The assembly of the wicked* ***have*** *inclosed me.*—BIBLE.

4. *Few, many, most, some, several, the rest,* etc., take a verb

in the plural; as, *Few of the men* ***were*** *there. Many of the sailors* ***were*** *shipwrecked. None* should always take a verb in the singular; as, ***None*** *of our party was sick.*

5. When the subject consists of two or more nouns connected by the conjunction *and*, the verb must be in the plural; as, *The evening and the morning* ***were*** *the first day.*

To this rule there are several exceptions:

(1) If the nouns are names for the same person or thing, the verb is in the singular; as, *A laggard in love and a dastard in war* ***was*** *to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.*—SCOTT.

(2) If the nouns are names of things that may be considered as forming one whole, the verb is in the singular; as, *Wherein* ***doth*** *sit the dread and fear of kings.*—SHAKESPEARE. *The wheel and axle* ***was*** *out of repair.*

(3) When the predicate verb is made to agree with the subject next to it, being mentally supplied with the others, two or more nouns or pronouns connected by *and* often take a verb in the singular. This may happen in the following cases:

(*a*) When it is desired to make one of the subjects emphatic; as, *Both death and* ***I am*** *found eternal.*—MILTON. *To rive what Goth and Turk and* ***Time hath*** *spared.*—BYRON.

(*b*) When the subject nouns are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*; as, *Each book and each paper* ***was*** *found in its place. Every hour and every minute* ***is*** *important. No help and no hope* ***comes*** *to the drowning man.*

(*c*) When a verb separates its subjects, it agrees with the first; as, *The leader of the band* ***was*** *slain, and all his men.* If the first noun is plural, the verb is plural; as, *The men* ***were*** *slain and their leader also.*

(*d*) When the verb is placed before its subject, and the latter is represented by *there*, *such*, etc.; as, *Upon this there* ***was*** *a fearful cry from heaven, and* (there were) *great claps of thunder.* —WASHINGTON IRVING. *Such was the intelligence, the gravity, and the self-command of Cromwell's warriors.*—MACAULAY. The pronoun *it*, having a forward reference (§ **239**), has a verb in the singular even when the complement is plural; as, *It* ***is*** *they. It* ***was*** *the governor and his brother who were here.*

6. When the subject consists of two or more singular nouns, or equivalents of nouns, joined by *or, either—or, neither—nor*, the verb must be singular.

The reason of this rule is that, with *or, either—or*, the predicate is affirmed of only *one* of the subjects; as, *Either Jones or Smith* ***starts*** *for Europe to-morrow.* With *nor*, or *neither—nor*, the predicate is denied of each of the subjects separately; as, *Where neither moth nor rust* ***doth*** *corrupt.*—BIBLE. *Nor man nor fiend* ***hath*** *fallen so far.*—BYRON.

Good writers, however, occasionally use a plural verb after nouns connected by *neither—nor*, if the predicate is regarded as denied of both together; as, *Nor heaven nor earth* ***have*** *been at peace to-night.*—SHAKESPEARE. *Neither the king nor either of his two sons* ***are*** *permitted to leave the island.*

When two or more subjects connected by *or* or *nor* differ in *person*, the rule is usually given that the verb must agree with the subject next to it; as, *Either you or I* ***am*** *to go. Either he or you* ***are*** *to go. Either you or he* ***is*** *to go.* It is better to avoid this construction—either complete the predicate with the first subject, "Either you are to go, or I am," or change the form of the sentence.

CAUTIONS.

1. Do not use a plural verb after a singular subject modified by an adjective phrase that is introduced by *with*. We should say, *The rebel chief, with all his attendants,* ***was*** (not *were*) *captured.*

2. When two subject nouns are connected by the conjunction *as well as*, the verb agrees in person and number with the first. We say, *The boy, as well as his sister,* ***deserves*** *commendation;* meaning, *The boy deserves commendation, as well as his sister* (deserves commendation).

3. Never use a singular verb after *you* or *they*. Do not say, *You was there*, or *Was you there?* or *They was.*

4. Do not mistake a noun in a modifying phrase for the subject of the verb. Gibbon writes, *The richness of her arms and apparel* ***were*** (should be ***was***) *conspicuous in the foremost ranks. The omission of unnecessary adjectives* ***add*** (should be ***adds***) *to clearness of discourse.*

5. When the subject is a relative pronoun, the number and person of the verb are the same as the number and person of the antecedent of the relative. We say, *This is the only one of the books that* ***is*** *worth reading*, because the antecedent of *that* is *one;* but, *This is one of the best books that* ***have*** *appeared this year*, because the antecedent of *that* is *books.*

6. Beware of incorrect contractions of verbs with the adverb *not.* Do not use *He don't, It don't,* for *He does not,* or *He doesn't,* etc. Do not use *You da'sn't, He da'sn't,* for *You dare not,* etc. We may say *I don't, We don't.* Avoid *can't, aren't, weren't,* and *won't.* The use of such expressions as *hadn't ought to,* and *didn't ought to,* is wholly wrong.

Concord of Adjective and Noun.

567. Every adjective, or its equivalent, modifies the meaning of a noun expressed or understood; but as the demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* are the only adjectives inflected, the only rule for the concord of adjectives is:

568. *This* and *that* are used with nouns in the singular; *these* and *those*, with nouns in the plural; as, ***This*** *kind of apple.* ***These*** *kinds of apples.*

An apparent exception to this rule occurs in the common expressions, ***this*** *twenty years,* ***this*** *many summers;* but they are defensible on the ground that we are thinking of a period of time, and hence that the idea is singular.

569. The indefinite pronouns *each, every, either,* and *neither,* when used as adjectives, are invariably joined to singular nouns, and hence, if the noun is in the nominative case, the predicate verb must be singular; as, ***Every*** *tree* ***is*** *known by its fruits.* Dr. Bain quotes, from Thackeray, two examples of a common error: ***Neither*** *of the sisters* ***were*** *very much deceived.* ***Neither*** *of my brothers* ***do*** *anything to make this place amusing.*

Concord of Pronoun and Antecedent.

570. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent (§ **222**) in gender, number, and person; as, *I have found a coin; **it** is a silver dollar. The young lady addressed the meeting; **she** made a fine speech. I have been talking with a man **whom** I admire greatly. I lost an umbrella, **which** cost me ten dollars.*

For the forms, inflections, and uses of the personal pronouns, see §§ **224–250.**

Work again Exercises 30 and 31.

For the forms, inflections, and uses of the relative pronouns, see §§ **261–282.**

Work again Exercise 32.

571. When the antecedent is a noun or a pronoun in the singular, that implies both the masculine and the feminine gender, Dr. Bain states that it is allowable to use a plural pronoun. Among other examples, he quotes the following from standard writers: ***Every one** must judge of **their** own feelings* —Byron. *Had the doctor been contented to take my dining tables, as **anybody** in **their** senses would have done.*—Miss Austen. *If the **fool**, or the **pig**, **are** of a different opinion, it is because **they** only know **their** own side of the question.*—J. S. Mill. Strict compliance with the rule requires the use in such cases of both the masculine and the feminine pronoun; as, *Everybody believes **his** or **her** own opinion to be correct.* Such constructions, particularly in long sentences, are to be avoided.

572. Great care must be taken in determining the antecedent of a relative pronoun in the nominative case, because the verb of which the pronoun is the subject takes its number and person from the antecedent. Following are some examples of peculiar cases:

1. We should say, *One of the most valuable books **that** have* (not *that has*) *appeared in any language.*

2. When the antecedent of a relative pronoun is a clause (see § **280**), the pronoun is neuter; as, *He lives for others, **which*** (the living for others) *is to be commended.*

3. A relative pronoun is sometimes made to agree in person with a subject pronoun rather than with a predicate noun or pronoun that is the real antecedent; as, *I am a plain blunt man **that love** my friend.*—SHAKESPEARE.

4. Use *those who, this* or *that which,* in preference to *they* or *them who, it which.*

5. A relative pronoun should not refer to a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case. *The little boy's father that is studying Latin, helps him in his lessons,* is ambiguous. As it is the son and not the father who is studying Latin, we should say, *The father of the little boy that,* etc.

CONCORD OF CASES.

573. The subject and the complement of an intransitive verb or of a verb in the passive voice, of incomplete predication, agree in case. (See §§ **344–8.**)

Two cases must be distinguished under this rule:

1. When the verb is in one of the finite modes (see § **358**), the complement, if a noun or a pronoun, is in the nominative case, because the subject is in the nominative case; as, ***I am he.*** ***He was elected President.***

2. When the verb is in the infinitive mode the complement is in the objective case, because the subject is in the objective case; as, *We thought **it** to be **him.*** *They desired **him** to become their **leader.***

An apparent exception occurs when a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case serves as a complement; as, *The earth is the **Lord's.*** *That book is **mine.*** In the first of these sentences the word earth may be regarded as understood after *Lord's.* For the explanation of the second, see § **242.**

574. When a noun or a pronoun explains the meaning of another noun or pronoun, the explaining

noun agrees in case, or is in apposition, with the noun explained. See § **210.** As:

NOMINATIVE: *This* ***gentleman,*** *the prince's near* ***ally,***
My very ***friend,*** *hath got his mortal hurt.*
POSSESSIVE: ***Jack*** *the* ***giant-killer's*** *wonderful exploits.*
OBJECTIVE: *The children love their* ***uncle, Mr. Harris.***

When two nouns in the possessive case are in apposition, the second alone takes the inflection. (See §§ **204–208.**)

A noun and a noun clause are sometimes in apposition: as, *The hope* ***that he would succeed,*** *gave him courage. I count this* ***thing*** *to be grandly true, that a noble deed is a step toward God.*

A noun is sometimes in apposition with a noun implied in a preceding clause; as, *He is said to have deserted—a* ***crime*** *punishable by death = He was charged* ***with desertion*** *—a* ***crime,*** etc.

Examples of pronouns in apposition with nouns, are: *Ichabod Crane,* ***he*** *of the hooked nose and shambling gait, was the schoolmaster of Sleepy Hollow. He* ***himself*** *will be the judge.*

CONCORD OF TENSES.

575. Verbs in subordinate clauses, as well as infinitives and gerunds, must take the form required by the tense of the principal verb.

576. When the infinitive refers to a time coincident with, or after, that of the principal verb, the present (simple form) should be used; as, *I intended* ***to go*** (not *to have gone*). *It was their duty* ***to prevent*** *this outrage* (not *to have prevented*). *He would have found it difficult* ***to do this*** (not *to have done this*).

577. When the reference is to a time prior to that indicated by the principal verb (or its attendant words), the perfect infinitive is used; as, *He is reported* ***to have rescued*** *the man from drowning. He is believed* ***to have lived*** *in the third century.*

But *ought, must, need,* and some other verbs that have no distinctive form for the past tense, take the present or the past infinitive, according to the sense: *He ought to go* (now). *He ought to have gone yesterday. He must be weary. He must have been weary. He need not go away. He need not have gone away.*

578. The gerund follows the same law as the infinitive; as, *He had no intention of* ***doing*** *wrong. He is not conscious of* ***having done*** *wrong.*

579. The tense of a verb in a subordinate clause must not conflict with the tense of the verb in the principal clause.

I ***shall go*** *if you* ***desire*** *it. I* ***should go*** *if you* ***desired*** *it. I* ***should have gone*** *if you* ***had desired*** *it. If I* ***can arrange*** *my affairs I* ***will go*** *to Europe. If I* ***could arrange*** *my affairs I* ***would go*** *to Europe. If I* ***could have arranged*** *my affairs I* ***would have gone*** *to Europe. If I* ***have*** *the book I* ***will send*** *it. If I* ***had*** *the book I* ***would send*** *it. If I* ***had had*** *the book I* ***would have sent*** *it.*

In sentences expressing a condition and a consequence, the clause expressing the condition is called a *conditional clause,* and the clause expressing the consequence is called the *consequent clause.*

580. An apparent exception to the last rule occurs in the case of a statement true for all time, which is put in the *present tense* even when the principal verb is in a past tense; as, *It was as true as that any two sides of a triangle* ***are*** *together greater than the third side.*

581. Co-ordinate conjunctions join verbs in the same modes and tenses.

If thou ***bring*** *thy gift to the altar, and there* ***rememberest*** *that thy brother hath aught against thee,* involves a mistake in mode, because *bring* is in the subjunctive mode, and *rememberest* in the indicative. It should be either, *If thou bring . . . . remember;* or, *If thou bringest . . . . rememberest.*

I am sure that he ***has been*** *there, and* ***did*** *what was required of him,* shows a lack of agreement in tenses. We should say, *I am sure that he* ***has been*** *there and* ***has done*** *what was required of him;* or, ***was there*** *and* ***did;*** or, *that he* ***has been*** *there, and* ***that he did.*** In the last form the difficulty is obviated by making the conjunction connect two clauses, not two verbs. Hence the caution: When in the same sentence it is necessary to change the tense, repeat the subject.

582. When two or more auxiliaries are used in reference to one principal verb, care should be taken that the form of the principal verb is suited to each of the auxiliaries.

In the sentence, *This preface will answer for any book, that* ***has, or shall be,*** *published, has* does not make sense in connection with *published.* We should say, *that* ***has been, or shall be,*** *published.*

In the sentence, *I advise others to take the same course that I have, have* refers to the verb *take,* which is absurd. We should say, *have taken.*

Concord of Prepositions.

583. When a prepositional phrase is joined to a derivative word (§§ **484–5**), the preposition and the prefix of the derivative word should, as a general rule, agree in meaning; as, *ad-apt to, af-fix to, di-vert from, ex-pel from* or *out of.*

An exception occurs when the meaning of the stem, rather than that of the prefix, determines the preposition; as when we speak of our *abhorrence* ***of*** or ***for*** a thing, and not of *abhorrence* ***from.***

584. Our language being nearly destitute of inflections, the relations of words are largely shown by means of prepositions. Great care should be exercised in their selection, so that the exact idea intended shall be conveyed.

Among those that are often misused are the following: *Of,*

to, for, from, by, with, in, into, at, on, unto, until, off, upon, between, among, without (for except).

In, on, at, by, generally imply *rest. He lives in the city. He is at the fair. The mat lies by the door. The clock stands on the stairs.*

To, into, unto, toward, towards, from, imply motion with direction. *He went to the city. He came into the house. The man is driving towards the river. He comes from the city every day. They got into the carriage and rode in it.*

Between is used of two objects. *Among* (or *amongst*), *amid* (*amidst*), of a greater number. *There was a generous rivalry between the two boys. Four boys came forward; he divided the peaches among them.*

Referring to places, we say, *In New York* (city or large town), *at Lyons Falls* (hamlet or railway station), *in Europe, in the State of New York, touched at Dover, arrived at Liverpool* (of a vessel on a voyage), *boards at the Astor House, he lives on Greene Ave., at No. 1076*, or, *at 1076 Greene Ave., in San Francisco.*

Of is sometimes ambiguous after nouns derived from transitive verbs; as, *The love of our neighbor* may mean our love for him, or his love for us. So in the following: *I was greatly interested in reading about the discovery of Livingstone.* Does this mean Stanley's discovering Livingstone, or a discovery that Livingstone made? *Everybody approved of the choice of the president.* Did the president choose, or did some one choose him?

In all such cases the ambiguity may be avoided by substituting a participial phrase, or a possessive case: *The discovery made by Livingstone; The president's choice.*

Beside is now used chiefly with the sense of *by the side of. Besides* means *in addition to. He sits beside the well. Have you any money besides this?*

Upon should rarely be used except with the accompanying sense of height. We may say, *Upon* the top of a building, but *on* the ground, *on* a table. *Upon* is also used in the sense of *after;* as, *Upon hearing the news, we sent you word.*

Off of is extremely inelegant. We should say, *He fell off the roof*, not *off of.*

Concord of Conjunctions.

585. Certain adjectives and adverbs, as well as conjunctions, take after them special conjunctions. For example:

Such (implying comparison) requires *as: This is not such a book as I want. Such* (cause and effect) takes *that: My income is not such that I can afford it. Both* requires *and. So* (with a negative) takes *as: He is not so tall as I. As* (affirmative) takes *as: He is as tall as his brother.* For other examples of conjunctions used in pairs, see § **466.**

586. CAUTION.—*Like* is *not* a conjunction, and must not be used for *as* or *as though*. *He looks* ***like*** *he had been sick* (as though). *He is a soldier* ***like*** *his father was* (as).

GOVERNMENT.

587. DEFINITION.—**Government** is the power that a word has to determine the case of a noun or a pronoun; as when a pronoun, following a preposition, takes the objective form; as, *Behind him, before me.*

588. Transitive verbs, and their participles and gerunds, as well as prepositions, govern the objective cases of nouns and pronouns.

Nouns and pronouns that are the objects of transitive verbs must be carefully distinguished from nouns and pronouns that modify the meanings of verbs as to extent, direction, time, etc. The latter are either the equivalents of adverbs, or they are abridged adverbial phrases. See § **209.**

589. The following errors are frequently made in the application of the rule given in § **588**:

1. When the object is separated by a clause from the governing word, the nominative case is liable to be used for the objective case; as, ***He*** *that is suspicious of others, we are apt to suspect. He* should be *him*, because it is the object of *suspect.*

2. The nominative case is sometimes used in interrogative sentences, instead of the objective, and *vice versa.* Instead of *Who do you suppose I met on the street?* we should say *whom*, because it is the object of *met.* Instead of *Whom do men say that I am*, we should say, *who*, because it is the predicate complement of *am.*

3. After certain verbs. *Let you and I go*, should be *Let you and* ***me*** *go. He took John and I fishing*, should be *John and me.*

4. After prepositions. *Between you and I*, should be *Between you and* ***me.*** Instead of *I do not know who to give it to*, we should say *whom*, because it is the object of the preposition *to.*

EXERCISE 69.—*Correct the errors in the concord of subject and verb in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. It don't seem possible that our country is so young!
2. Every one of the passengers tell the same story.
3. Care thou for me?
4. John don't understand this rule in grammar.
5. Thomas or I were going to call for you.
6. The bones forming an open cage, commonly known as the chest, is scientifically called the *thorax*.
7. In expiration, the diaphragm and the muscles that raise the ribs, relaxes.
8. All work and no play make Jack a dull boy.
9. If five yards of muslin costs fifty cents, what does three yards cost?
10. It don't seem possible that it is ten years since I saw you.
11. The jury has disagreed.
12. The crowd are becoming uncontrollable.
13. The collection from the scholars are to be given to a G. A. R. Post.
14. The class have been unruly.
15. The Society of Friends were founded by George Fox.

EXERCISE 70.—*Correct the errors in the concord of subject and complement in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. I proved it to be he who was to blame for the accident.
2. Who did you take my brother to be?
3. I think it was her who helped me.
4. I think it to be she who helped me.
5. I do not know whether the Macdonalds are Scotch or Irish; but I thought the Scotch family alluded to might be them.
6. The mischievous boys you speak of could not have been us, for we were at home.

EXERCISE 71.—*Correct the errors in the concord of pronoun and antecedent, and of subject and verb, in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. A good education is that which gives to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which it is capable.
2. It is letters, however, which opens the intelligence to the light of reason.
3. Each of the boys have their own bicycle.
4. Neither Charles nor his brother ate their breakfast this morning.
5. One of the most splendid comets that has ever been seen, appeared in 1744.

6. One of the greatest sovereigns that has ruled over Austria, was Maria Theresa.

7. The hen gathered its brood under her wing.

8. The committee handed in their unanimous report.

9. If any one wishes to see me, let them call after three o'clock.

10. Has each scholar handed in their composition?

EXERCISE 72.—*Correct the errors in the concord or use of mode in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. If an animal of any kind was kept shut up in a box, it would surely die.

2. If my sister goes, which I think is doubtful, she will call for you.

3. I wish I was in Europe.

4. If I was wealthy, I should build a hospital for the poor.

5. Unless he takes better care of his health, he will have a short life.

6. I shall insist that he obeys you.

7. Whether he goes or not, it is your duty to be present.

8. Was I Brutus, and Brutus, Antony, I would put a tongue in every wound of Cæsar.

9. Though he censures me, yet I respect him.

10. Unless he refuses to see you, do not give up hope.

EXERCISE 73.—*Correct the errors in the concord of tenses in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. I had hoped to have met you at church.

2. Where did you say Yellowstone Park was?

3. Is he very lame? I should say he was.

4. What factory was that I passed coming here?

5 The foot-note explained that H_2O meant that water was composed of two parts of hydrogen to one of oxygen.

6. It was my desire to have invited my class-mates to visit me in the country.

7. I neglected to have mentioned the fact.

8. He expected to have seen you to-morrow.

9. Washington is supposed to have many marvelous escapes from death.

10. The general intended to have examined the ground before the battle, but the advance of the enemy prevented him.

11. The lawyer expected to have won the suit, and was astonished to hear the judge's decision.

EXERCISE 74.—*Correct the errors in the concord or use of adjectives in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. There are two teachers, prosperity and adversity; the former is great, but the latter is the greatest.

2. Washington, Jefferson, Adams, and Madison were all great men; but Washington is considered the greater.

3. John is the shortest of her two brothers.

4. Mary is the most forgiving of the two.

5. This is more preferable than the other.

6. I never saw a more perfect specimen.

7. Louis XIV. reigned longer than all the other kings of France.

8. New York is larger than any city in America.

9. Diamonds are more valuable than all the precious stones.

10. Shakespeare was greater than any English dramatist.

11. Of all other animals, the horse and th dog are certainly the most sagacious.

12. The Falls of Niagara are known to be the grandest of any other in the United States.

13. San Francisco has the largest Chinese population of any other city in America.

14. What species of a cactus is this one?

15. A shamrock is the emblem of Ireland.

16. My teacher suffers a great deal with the neuralgia.

17. The boy's composition on that stubborn animal, a donkey, was highly appreciated by the class.

18. You do not deserve the title of a Christian when you act so uncharitably.

19. Daniel Webster was elected a Senator.

20. It is a historical fact that Columbus discovered America in 1492.

21. Brutus was a honorable man.

22. I have just bought an hoe.

23. These sort of people are always disgusting.

24. This kinds of stories entertairs me.

25. He always carries a three-feet measure in his overcoat pocket.

26. The pond is forty foot deep.

EXERCISE 75.—*Correct the errors in the concord or use of adverbs in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. There is no blessing equal to that of perfect health: you ought to value yours higher.

2. Write slow and careful.

3. The republic of the United States is not near as old as the kingdom of Spain.

4. Isabel looks real well in her new hat.

5. His teacher spoke cold and scornful to him after she found he had acted dishonorable.

6. We are near through our term's work.

7. Few countries have such a hot climate as tropical Africa.

8. Such a high authority in science as Tyndall, is generally believed.

EXERCISE 76.—*Correct the errors in the concord or use of prepositions in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. He has moved into New York, into an elegant mansion.
2. The paper is cut in small strips.
3. I am packing my clothes into my trunk.
4. The boys are standing on to the landing.
5. We went onto the roof of the house to view the eclipse.
6. The blast blew the rock in fragments.
7. He went in the cabin through the large doorway.
8. He is down to the village.
9. The oldest mint in the United States is at Philadelphia.
10. I do not know what is the matter of her.
11. We shall have a holiday upon Washington's Birthday.
12. Ex-President Grant died with a cancer.
13. I stayed to a large hotel, when I was in Rome.
14. He is living into a frame house at Boston.
15. Her unladylike behavior gave occasion to many unpleasant remarks.
16. That ugly worm will change to a butterfly.
17. I shall be thankful when I arrive to my journey's end.
18. She lives at Greene avenue, in No. 1050.

EXERCISE 77.—*Correct the errors in the concord or use of conjunctions and adverbs in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. Gen. Sheridan was not as tall as Gen. Sherman.
2. England is not as large as Russia.
3. If Latin had been so difficult for the Romans to learn as it is for us, Rome never could have found time to conquer the world and master her language.
4. Sheridan was not as great a dramatist as Shakespeare.
5. He is fond of reading like his mother was when she was his age.
6. He likes me like a fly likes vinegar.
7. The woodchuck looks as a gray hermit.
8. The sun was as a snow-bound traveler sinking out of sight from exhaustion.
9. Our tunnel through the snow looked like we imagined Aladdin's cave did.
10. You can not go except your mother accompany you.
11. Two of the States can not be joined into one without their State legislatures and Congress both agree to it.
12. Except you study you will not be promoted.
13. He can not enter the regiment before he is of age unless by his guardian's consent.

EXERCISE 78.—*Correct the errors in the use of the possessive case in the following sentences:*

1. I bought this dress at Arnold's and Constable's store on Broadway.
2. We have both Stormonth and Webster's dictionary in our class-room.
3. McClintock's and Strong's Cyclopædia is devoted to Biblical and theological subjects.
4. I received a package containing all of Thackeray and Dicken's works.
5. Neither Brooklyn nor Chicago's population equals that of New York.
6. My brother-in-law's, sister's, servant's ears have been frozen.
7. I do not like him appearing in public so young.
8. She was very much pleased at the Queen ordering flowers from her.

EXERCISE 79.—*Correct the errors in government in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

1. Mr. Barnum gave John and I tickets for the circus.
2. They that obey me, I will reward.
3. He saw who he wanted.
4. Who do you think I met in Paris?
5. I do not know who to inquire for.
6. Let you and I look at these things.
7. Stay, I will not kill ye.
8. To send me away, and for a whole year, too—I, who had never crept from under the parental wing—was a startling idea.
9. It is in this that the great difference lies between the laborer who moves to Yorkshire and he who moves to Canada.
10. He hath given away about half his fortune to no one knows who.

ORDER OF WORDS.

590. Since, in English, there are few inflections, or changes in the form of a word to denote various relations, the order of words is often of importance in determining the sense.

591. The following principles, laid down by Dr. Bain, lie at the foundation of all the rules governing the arrangement of words in sentences:

1. *What is to be thought of first should be mentioned first.*

2. *Things to be thought of together should be placed in close connection.*

592. In what may be called the **usual order** of words in a sentence, the subject (including modifiers) precedes the predicate (the verb and its modifiers); because the subject of a sentence is generally thought of before the predicate.

The rules that follow present the *usual order* in detail. Deviations from the *usual order* are generally made for the sake either of emphasis or of sound. Inversions for the sake of sound are very common in poetry.

The places for emphatic words are the beginning and the end of a sentence. If a word, for instance, that would, in the usual order, come at the end of a sentence, is transferred to the beginning, it at once becomes emphatic. *Great is Diana of the Ephesians* is much more forcible than *Diana of the Ephesians is great.*

Hence, it is well, for the most part, to avoid ending a sentence with a weak word, such as a *preposition*, an *adverb*, or a *pronoun.*

Rules of Order.

593. The subject noun or pronoun generally precedes the verb; as, ***Time*** *flies.* ***Lions*** *are found in Africa.*

The following exceptions should be noted:

1. In an interrogative sentence whose subject is not an interrogative pronoun, the subject follows the verb or comes between the auxiliary and the principal verb; as, ***Are you*** *a pupil?* ***Will nothing*** *move you?*

2. When the verb is in the subjunctive mode and the introductory conjunction is omitted, the subject follows the verb or comes between the auxiliary and the verb; as, ***Had he lived*** *till now*, etc. ***Were you*** *my son*, etc.

3. After *neither* or *nor*, signifying *and not*, the subject follows the verb; as, *Nor* ***is this*** *much to be regretted.*

4. With the imperative mode, the subject follows the verb; as, *Praise ye the Lord.*

5. In introducing a broken quotation, the subject often follows the verb; as, *Said he. Thought I.*

6. After the words *there* and *here* used to introduce a sentence, the subject follows the verb; as, *There was a king in Thule. Here followed a long list of studies.*

7. When the writer or speaker desires us to think of the action, or of some circumstance respecting the action, before thinking of the principal subject, the verb is placed before the subject; as, *Wherever flagged his own, or failed the opposing force, glittered his white robe, and rose his bloody battle-axe.*—LYTTON. The unusual position of the subject noun and predicate verb, renders each very emphatic. Such inversions of the usual order of words are frequent in poetry.

594. The **predicate complement** follows an incomplete intransitive verb; as, *Cotton is king. The stars shine bright.*

For the sake of emphasis the predicate complement, when an adjective or a pronoun, may precede the verb; as, *Great is Diana of the Ephesians. He it is to whom I refer.*

595. The **object** follows a transitive verb; as, *He loves truth.*

The following exceptions should be noted:

1. A relative pronoun as object of a verb always precedes the verb that governs it; as, *This is the man whom I saw. The book that you gave me is here.*

2. For the sake of emphasis the object stands before the verb; as, *Honey from out the gnarled hive I'll bring.*—KEATS. This construction is frequent in poetry.

3. An object noun is sometimes placed before the verb for the purpose of bringing the sentence in which it occurs into closer relation with the preceding sentence; as, *He says, "The supreme excellence in writing is simplicity." This simplicity he steadily cultivated.*

It is better to avoid placing the object, when a noun, before

the verb, as this order often leads to ambiguity. Thus, from the sentence, *The son the father addressed*, it is impossible to tell whether the son addressed the father, or the father the son. With the usual order, however, there can be no mistake: *The son addressed the father.* When the subject or the object is a pronoun that shows its case by its form, there is less danger of confusion, and a pronoun used as object is freely placed before the verb for the sake of emphasis; as,

> ***Him*** *the Almighty Power*
> *Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky.*—MILTON.

596. An adjective modifier should be placed as near as possible to the word whose meaning it modifies.

1. A single adjective or a series of adjectives precedes the noun whose meaning is modified; as, ***A wise*** *son maketh* ***a glad*** *father.* ***Many beautiful, fragrant*** *flowers were blooming.*

In poetry, for the sake of the *rime* or the *rhythm* (see § **643**), and also for the sake of emphasis, the adjective is often placed after the noun; as,

> *We sat within the farm-house* ***old***
> *Whose windows looking o'er the bay,*
> *Gave to the sea-breeze,* ***damp*** *and* ***cold,***
> *An easy entrance night and day.*

2. When the adjective is accompanied by modifiers of its own, it usually follows the noun; as, *A man* ***wise*** *in his own conceit.*

3. When two numerals modify the meaning of one noun, the ordinal adjective generally stands first, and the cardinal second; as, *The* ***last three*** *chapters of the book. The* ***first two*** *items of the account.*

4. A participle or a participial phrase is usually placed immediately after the noun whose meaning it modifies; as, *The boy,* ***having learned his lesson,*** *went out to play.*

The participial phrase may, however, come first, when there is no doubt as to the noun to which it belongs; as, ***Having crossed the Alps,*** *Cæsar came into Italy.*

5. A prepositional adjective phrase or an adjective clause should immediately follow the word whose meaning is modified; as, *Venus is the star* ***of the morning.*** ***I that denied thee gold,*** *will give my heart.*

Cautions.

1. Mistakes are frequently made through placing an adjective beside a noun to which it does not belong, as, *The Moor, seizing a bolster, full of rage and jealousy, smothers her.*

2. Carelessness in the use of a participle or a participial phrase often leaves the participle without a noun or pronoun to modify, which makes not only nonsense but bad grammar. Thus, in the sentence, *Being exceedingly fond of birds, an aviary is always to be found in his grounds,* there is no noun or pronoun whose meaning is modified by the participial phrase *being fond.* The sentence might be corrected by changing the phrase to a clause, *Since he is exceedingly fond,* etc., or by recasting the principal clause, *He always has an aviary,* etc.

3. Ridiculous blunders are made by the misplacing of adjective phrases and clauses; as, *A piano for sale by a lady about to cross the Channel, in an oak case, with carved legs.*

597. An adverbial modifier should generally be placed as near as possible to the word whose meaning it modifies.

1. An adverb modifying the meaning of an intransitive verb, generally follows the verb; as, *He walks* ***rapidly.*** A few adverbs, such as *ever, never, often, seldom,* generally precede the verb; as, *We* ***often*** *go to the city, but we* ***seldom*** *stay long, and* ***never*** *remain there over night.*

2. An adverb modifying the meaning of a transitive verb, generally precedes it, on account of the object following; but, in compound tenses, the adverb comes after the first auxiliary if the verb is in the active voice, and next to the principal verb if it is in the passive voice; as, *The troops* ***bravely*** *stormed the fortress. Learning has* ***always*** *elicited respect. He will* ***certainly*** *have finished before you arrive. The problem can be* ***easily*** *solved.* When the object of a transitive verb is short,

the adverb is sometimes placed after the object; as, *I wrote my composition* ***yesterday.*** When the meaning of the object is modified by a phrase or a clause, an adverbial modifier is placed immediately after the verb; as, *He read* ***with great care*** *the book that I gave him.*

3. When an adverb of time and an adverb of manner modify the meaning of the same verb, the adverb of time precedes the verb, and that of manner follows it; as, *We* ***never*** *suffer* ***willingly.***

4. Adverbial phrases follow the same rules as adverbs with regard to position.

5. Adverbial clauses of time, place, or condition, may precede or follow the verb in the principal clause; but, as a general rule, they should precede; as, ***When summer comes,*** *the days are longer.* ***If you wish it,*** *I will accompany you.*

6. Adverbial clauses of manner are generally placed before the principal clause, when the correlatives *as—so* are both expressed; but when *so* is omitted, the principal clause comes first; as, *As the sun breaks through the darkest clouds, so honor peereth through the meanest habit. Honor peereth through the meanest habit, as the sun breaks through the darkest clouds.*

7. Two or more phrases or clauses modifying the meaning of the same verb, may be placed, one before, the other after, the verb; as, ***After a little practice*** *he will speak* ***with greater ease.*** ***If you will allow me,*** *I shall assist you* ***when I have finished my lesson.***

Cautions.

1. Care should be taken to place the adverb *only* immediately before the word whose meaning it modifies. Also *solely, equally, at least, at any rate.* By the insertion of *only* the sentence, *I spoke a few words*, may be made to give three different meanings:

(*a*) *Only I spoke a few words. I spoke; no one else did.*

(*b*) *I only spoke a few words. I spoke; I did nothing else.*

(*c*) *I spoke only a few words. My speech was brief.*

At the end of a sentence *only* has a disparaging meaning; as, *He gave a dime only.*

With a noun or a pronoun it is often advisable to use *alone* instead of *only;* as, *He alone saw us.* If *alone* followed *us*, the meaning would be that he saw *us and no others.*

2. The negative adverb *not* may, if wrongly placed, impart to a sentence a meaning quite different from that intended. For *Lady Clare was not happy because she was beloved, but because*, etc., we should read, *was happy, not because.*

3. The adverbs *ever, never, scarcely ever*, etc., are often misplaced; as, *We never remember to have seen a more beautiful spot.* We should say, *We can not remember to have ever seen*, etc.

4. Where there are two or more verbs in a sentence, special care should be taken to place adverbial phrases and clauses close to the words whose meanings they modify.

He blew out his brains after bidding his wife good-bye with a gun. Read, *After bidding his wife good-bye, he blew*, etc.

You may read through the book I bought yesterday in half an hour. Place *in half an hour* before *through*, or before *you.*

5. It is common, particularly in newspaper writing, to insert an adverb between *to* and the infinitive; as, *To bravely die.* This construction is contrary to the best usage, and is objectionable because of the identity in sound between *to bravely* and *too bravely.*

598. The preposition generally precedes its object; as, *Have a place* ***for everything.***

The preposition, however, is often separated from a relative pronoun which it governs, and is then thrown to the end of the clause or sentence. Many modern grammarians forbid this construction, but it is common with the best writers; as,

The world is too well bred to shock authors with a truth, ***which*** *generally their booksellers are the first that inform them* ***of.***—POPE.

For I must use the freedom I was born with.—MASSINGER.

The preposition is sometimes separated from its object, in order to connect another preposition with the same noun; as, *He voted first* ***with,*** *and afterward* ***against,*** *the majority.* This construction, while not wrong, is to be avoided.

599. When two words are used correlatively, each member of the pair should come before the same part of speech. The following are the most important:

Not . . . . but.

The wise teacher should not aim to repress, but to encourage, his pupils. Read, *aim not to repress.*

Not . . . . but only.

He did not strive for fame, but only for the right. Read, *He strove not for fame,* etc.

Not only . . . . but also.

They not only chose him secretary, but also president. Place *not only* before *secretary.*

Not only . . . . but.

The Roman nobles not only were obliged to learn the Greek language, but to speak it. Not only should come before *to learn.*

Not merely . . . . but.

They will not merely interest children but grown-up people. Not merely should precede *children.*

Not more . . . . than.

They seem to me necessary not more to the accuracy of the extracts than of the portrait I seek to give of the writer. Not more should follow *accuracy.*

Both . . . . and.

The clergyman both spoke eloquently and sincerely. Read, *both eloquently aud sincerely.*

Either . . . . or.

The rules are too vague either for discussion or practical use. Read, *for either discussion,* etc.

Neither . . . . nor.

Her success is neither the result of system nor of strategy. Read, *neither of system nor,* etc.

600. According to the order in which the elements of a sentence are arranged, sentences are **periodic** or **loose.**

601. In a **periodic sentence** modifying elements, particularly adjective and conditional clauses, are placed before the principal subject and predicate.

In other words, the sense is suspended, or is not complete, until the close. The following are examples of periodic sentences:

If the telegrams are correct, the loss by fire will be very great.
When the Governor entered, he bowed to the assembly.

Deep in the shady sadness of a vale
Far sunken from the healthy breath of morn,
Far from the fiery noon and Eve's one star
Sat gray-haired Saturn, quiet as a stone.—KEATS.

602. In a **loose sentence** modifying elements are placed after the principal subject and predicate; as,

We came to our journey's end, | at last, | with no small difficulty, | after much fatigue, | through deep roads and bad weather.

This sentence might have been brought to a close at any of the places marked by the upright bars, and it would still have made complete sense. Changed to the periodic style, the sentence would read: "At last, with no small difficulty, after much fatigue, through deep roads and bad weather, we came to our journey's end." Herbert Spencer suggests the following as the best arrangement of this sentence: "At last, with no small difficulty and after much fatigue, we came, through deep roads and bad weather, to our journey's end." Thus, while the periodic structure is preserved, the modifying elements are disposed in a much more pleasing way before and after the predicate verb.

EXERCISE 80.—*In the following sentences point out the departures from the usual order. State the subject, predicate verb, and object or complement of each sentence, and give reasons why each inversion is made:*

1. So persecuted they the prophets which were before you.
2. Then burst his mighty heart.

3. From peak to peak, the rattling crags among,
Leaps the live thunder.

4. To confirm his words out fly millions of flaming swords.

5. Down the street with laughter and shout,
Glad in the freedom of school let out,
Come the boys.

6. From the ale-house and the inn
Opening on the narrow street,
Came the loud convivial din,
Singing, and applause of feet.

7. Her wing shall the eagle flap
O'er the false-hearted.

8. Silently, one by one, in the infinite meadows of heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels.

9. To seek thee did I often rove
Through woods and on the green.

10. In the court-yard of the castle, bound with many an iron band,
Stands the mighty linden planted by Queen Kunigunde's hand

11. Pleasant it was, when woods were green,
And winds were soft and low,
To lie amid some sylvan scene,
Where, the long drooping boughs between,
Shadows dark and sunlight sheen
Alternate come and go.

12. Near to the bank of the river . . .
Stood, secluded and still, the house of the herdsman.

13. Into the valley of death rode the six hundred.

14. Some he imprisoned, others he put to death.

15. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.

16. There dwelt a miller, hale and bold,
Beside the River Dee.

17. Rare almost as great poets, are consummate men of business.

EXERCISE 81.—*Correct the errors of arrangement in the following sentences, and give a reason for each change:*

ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS MISPLACED.

1. A woman was noticed loitering about the place where the child was seen carrying the child.

2. There are boats and lawn tennis and no mosquitoes to amuse the boarders.

3. If we are to believe the story, our hero was the guide, philosopher, and friend of Dr. Andrew Thomson when only a lad of thirteen.

4. Nor, indeed, can those habits be formed with certainty which are to continue during life in a shorter space.

5. A dish has been preserved in the treasury belonging to the cathedral, supposed to be made of emerald, for upward of six hundred yeai

6. We have two rooms, sufficiently large to accommodate two hundred pupils, one above the other.

Adverbial Modifiers Misplaced.

1. Several men died in the ship of fever.

2. The witness was ordered to withdraw in consequence of being intoxicated by order of the court.

3. A clever magistrate would see whether a witness was deliberately lying a great deal better than a stupid jury.

4. So correct is their ear that they can reproduce an air after once hearing it with the most perfect exactness.

5. We complimented them upon discussing matters which were in some countries found irritating in so calm a way.

6. It troubles the brains of children to be suddenly roused in a morning, and to be snatched away from sleep, wherein they are much deeper plunged than men, with haste and violence.

7. The carriage stopped at the small gate which led by a short gravel walk to the house amidst the nods and smiles of the whole party.

8. He always read Lord Byron's writings as soon as they were published with great avidity.

9. They followed the advance of the courageous party step by step through telescopes.

10. The convict-ship was bearing him to expiate his crimes against the laws of his country in another hemisphere.

11. I found what a poor superficial creature I was afterward.

12. He was driving away from the church where he had been married in a coach and six.

13. Fights frequently ensue in consequence, but are generally put a stop to before any material damage is done by the interference of friends.

14. Nobler and loftier emotions lit up the hearts of men who had only sacrifices to make with a generous enthusiasm.

15. People ceased to wonder by degrees.

16. One day the sparrow did not perform certain tricks which he had taught it to his satisfaction.

17. Few people learn any thing that is worth learning easily.

18. I never remember to have felt an event more deeply than his death.

19. I have only written three lines.

CORRELATIVES MISPLACED.

1. Homer was not only the maker of a nation, but of a language and a religion.

2. Every composition is fairly liable to criticism both in regard to its design and to its execution.

3. I am neither acquainted with the writer or his works.

4. He is neither disposed to sanction bloodshed nor deceit.

5. I know not what better description I could give you either of a great captain or a great orator.

6. He not only visited Paris, but Berlin, Vienna, and St. Petersburg.

EXERCISE 82.—*Change the following sentences from the loose construction to the periodic:*

1. The deepest snow hangs from peak to peak in unbroken and sweeping festoons, on the Alps.

2. The lines by which rocks are terminated are always steeper as we approach the summit of the mountain.

3. He will take false interest in what is great, who will take no interest in what is small.

4. Water is the most wonderful of all inorganic substances, acting in their own proper nature, and without assistance or combination.

5. The people have porches at their doors, where they sit, in cities where the evenings are generally hot.

6. One may realize how closely he is shut up, once in a while, even in our Northern cities, at noon, in a very hot summer's day.

7. You will get an image of a dull speaker and a lively listener, if you ever saw a crow with a king-bird after him.

8. Society draws the virtue out of what is best worth reading, as hot water draws the strength of tea-leaves.

9. I shall have to read something to you out of the book of this keen and witty scholar, if you think I have used rather strong language.

10. I wrote some sadly desponding poems and an essay which took a very melancholy view of creation, while I was suffering from indigestion.

ELLIPSIS.

603. Ellipsis is the omission from a sentence of some word or words necessary to the grammatical construction.

Ellipsis is permissible only when the omission does not obscure the sense; or, in other words, when the mind of the reader or the hearer easily supplies the omitted word.

604. The following cases of ellipsis are found:

1. A noun whose meaning is modified by a noun in the possessive case; as, *Who built St. Paul's* (Cathedral)?

2. The subject of a verb in the imperative mode; as, *Lay* (you) *not up for yourselves treasures.*

3. The participle in the absolute construction; as, *His heart and pocket* (being) *light, he sleeps secure.*

4. The relative pronoun used as subject of a verb; as, *'Tis distance* (that) *lends enchantment to the view.*

5. The relative pronoun used as the object of a verb or of a preposition; as, *The anxiety* (that) *I underwent was extreme. This is the house* (that) *I live in.*

6. A phrase consisting of a relative pronoun governed by a preposition; as, *This is the way* (by which) *I came. He left the day* (on which) *I arrived.* The omitted phrase is generally equivalent to *when* or *where.*

7. A personal or demonstrative pronoun used as the antecedent of a relative pronoun; as, (He) *who steals my purse, steals trash. I shall follow* (him or her) *whom I please* (to follow).

8. A subject noun or pronoun; as, (I) *thank you.*

9. A predicate verb; as, *Whose* (is) *this image and superscription?*

10. A verb in the infinitive mode; as, *Will you sing? I shall try* (to sing).

11. The subject, or the verb, or both, in adverbial clauses; as, *The river is smooth where* (it is) *deep. He is as tall as you* (are tall). *He is larger than* (he was large) *a year ago.*

12. The verb in one of the members of a compound sentence; as, *Though all men forsake thee, yet will not I* (forsake thee).

13. A conditional clause; as, *I should be glad to see you* (if you would come).

14. *That*, introducing a clause; as, *He says* (that) *he will not come.*

15. The object of a verb; as, *I knew him well, and every truant knew* (him).

16. A preposition; as, *He departed* (from) *this life. He left* (on) *this morning.*

EXERCISE 83.—*Supply the ellipses in the following sentences, and state the offices performed by the omitted words:*

1. Bring me my books.
2. I was at my brother's yesterday.
3. Who did it? I.
4. She loved me for the dangers I had passed.
5. The property I possess is but small.
6. This done, proceed with your story.
7. This truth is better expressed by Solomon than him.
8. Better be with the dead.
9. He entered, hat in hand, and sat down.
10. It is strange you did not discover it.
11. 'Tis the sunset of life gives me mystical lore.
12. Is this the kind of book you want?
13. No man I know would suit you better.
14. The moment I saw him I recognized him.
15. Off with the traitor's head, and rear it in the place your father stands.
16. Whom he would he chose for his counselors.
17. He was busy while here.
18. I get as much work as I want.
19. They are as cunning as fierce.
20. He works as diligently as if he had to earn his bread.
21. Come what may, I will not submit.
22. I would accept such an offer.

PUNCTUATION.

605. Punctuation is the method of indicating to the eye by means of points: (1) The conclusion of a sentence; (2) The elements of a sentence to be joined in meaning; (3) Pauses required in reading.

606. The points that mark the conclusion of a sentence are: 1. Period (.); 2. Note of interrogation (?); 3. Note of exclamation (!). These are sometimes called *terminal points.*

607. The period marks the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence, whether simple, complex, or compound.

The period is also used to mark abbreviations, as of names, titles, and dates; as, *Little, Brown, & Co., The Rev. John Sinclair, D.D., LL.D.; John Alden, M.A., Ph.D.; Henry VIII., Mr., Mrs., Esq.*

But when an ellipsis of letters occurs in the beginning, or the middle, of a word, an apostrophe is used to mark the omission: as, *'tis, o'er, don't.*

608. The **note of interrogation** marks the end of an interrogative sentence; as,

> . . . . *Where are they? And where art thou,*
> *My country?*—BYRON.

When a question forms part of a larger sentence, the question is marked by the note of interrogation; as, *They asked, "What do you propose to do?" in a most insolent manner.*

609. The **note of exclamation** marks the end of a sentence that expresses strong feeling (See § 7); as *Charge, Chester, charge!*

After the nominative of address when strong feeling is indicated, and after interjections or words used with the force of interjections, the note of exclamation is used within a sentence; as,

> *Earth! render back from out thy breast*
> *A remnant of our Spartan dead!*—BYRON.
>
> *Oh! why has worth so short a date?*

When *O* is used before the nominative of address, the (!) follows the noun; as, *O Scotia! my dear, my native soil!*—BURNS.

610. The points used within a sentence are the **comma** (,), the **semicolon** (;), the **colon** (:), the **dash** (—), **quotation-marks** (" "), the **parenthesis** [( )].

PUNCTUATION OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

611. The following are the principal rules for punctuating the simple sentence:

1. A very long *subject* is separated from the *predicate* by a comma; as, *The fact of the teacher's having overlooked the fault, made the pupil more careless than before.* A comma is inserted here to show that not the noun immediately preceding the verb, but the whole of the preceding expression is the subject of the verb.

When no ambiguity can arise, however, a point should not be placed between the subject and the verb; as, *To honor father and mother is the duty of every child.*

2. Three or more words in the same grammatical relation, following one another, must be separated by commas; and the last word, if a subject noun, must also be separated from the verb by a comma. ***Poetry, music, and painting,*** *are fine arts. David was a* ***brave, wise,*** *and* ***pious*** *prince. Happy is the child who* ***obeys, loves,*** *and* ***honors*** *his parents. You should seek after knowledge* ***steadily, patiently,*** *and* ***perseveringly.***

3. When two words of the same part of speech are connected by a conjunction, a comma is not inserted; as, *His father and mother are in the country. Religion purifies and elevates the mind.* When the conjunction is omitted, a comma should be inserted between the words; as, ***Reason, passion*** *answer one great aim.*

When the first of two adjectives modifies not the meaning of the noun, but the idea expressed by the noun and the second adjective, a comma is not inserted; as, *A* ***dark yellow*** *color.*

When words connected by a conjunction follow in successive pairs, a comma should be inserted after each pair; as, ***Interest*** *and* ***ambition, honor*** *and* ***shame, friendship*** *and* ***enmity,*** *all influence men.*

4. A noun in apposition, especially if accompanied by modifying words, is preceded and followed by a comma; as, *Paul, the* ***Apostle*** *of the Gentiles, was noted for zeal and knowledge.*

If the two nouns are closely connected, the comma is omitted; as, ***Paul*** *the* ***Apostle*** *preached at Athens. The* ***river Jordan*** *flows into the Dead Sea.*

5. An appositive (§ **532**) adjective or adjective phrase, if it occurs at the beginning of a sentence, is followed by a comma; if it occurs in the course of a sentence, it is preceded and followed by a comma; as, ***Encouraged by his first success,*** *he redoubled his efforts. General Wolfe,* ***wounded*** *and* ***dying,*** *learned of his great victory.*

6. An adverbial phrase preceding the verb and its subject, is usually followed by a comma; as, ***To be brief,*** *there are but two courses open to us.* ***The colonel having fallen,*** *the major took command.*

An adverbial phrase coming between the subject and the verb, or between the parts of the predicate, is set off by commas; as, *The soldier, **from force of habit,** obeys. His story is, **in several ways,** improbable.*

7. The following adverbs, particularly when they begin a sentence, are usually separated from the context by the comma:

Again	First	Lastly	Moreover	Now
Besides	Secondly	Finally	Namely	Indeed
However	Thirdly, etc.	Hence	Nay	Thus

The reason is that these adverbs generally modify the meaning not of single words, but of entire sentences; as, ***Nay,** you deceive me. She, **indeed,** never said so.*

When an adverb or an adverbial phrase follows its verb a comma is not needed; as, *His strength returned **gradually.** He spoke **with authority.***

8. The name of a person addressed is set off by the comma; as, *O **Cassius,** you are yoked with a lamb. Come, **Anthony,** and young **Octavius,** come.*

9. When the same object follows two or more prepositions, a comma is inserted after each preposition (see § **598**); as, *He was sent **by,** and he acted **for,** the people of the village.*

EXERCISE 84.—*Punctuate the following simple sentences:*

1. To be totally indifferent to praise or censure is a real defect of character.

2. Friends Romans countrymen lend me your ears.

3. At length their service performed and their race well run they left the world in peace.

4. The workmen anxious to do what was right proposed arbitration.

5. Augustus the Roman emperor he who succeeded Julius Cæsar is variously described.

6. Admired and applauded he became vain.

7. The brief haughty gratification of revenge is often purchased at the cost of a lasting humiliating remorse.

8. Truth is fair and artless simple and sincere uniform and consistent.

9. They are sometimes in harmony with and sometimes in opposition to the views of each other.

10. By threads innumerable our interests are interwoven.

11. In all pursuits attention is of primary importance.

12. They set out early and before the close of day reached their destination.

13. Temperance and abstinence faith and devotion are in themselves perhaps as laudable as any other virtues.

14. Divines jurists statesmen nobles princes swelled the triumph.

15. For by the old law of England two witnesses are necessary to establish a charge of treason.

Punctuation of the Complex Sentence.

612. The following are the principal rules for punctuating the complex sentence:

1. The rules governing the use of the comma in simple sentences, hold equally good for the clauses of complex sentences.

2. A noun clause used as the subject of a verb, should be followed by a comma; as, *That gymnastic training is good for boys, is clear.*

When a noun clause, in apposition with a subject pronoun, follows the principal clause, the two clauses are not separated by a comma; as, *It is clear that gymnastic training is good for boys.*

When a noun clause is in apposition with a preceding noun, the noun and the clause are separated by a comma; as, *Who does not know the well-known saying, that seeing is believing?*

A noun clause used as the object of a verb, is preceded by a comma only when it is of great length; as, *George Macdonald told his audience, that, for making a man accurate, there is nothing like having to teach what he possesses.*

3. A relative clause, when co-ordinate, is separated by a comma from the noun whose meaning it modifies; but when it is restrictive, the comma is omitted; as, Co-ordinate—*I will tell it to my father, who is waiting to hear it.* Restrictive—*I will tell it to the man that is at the gate.* (See **266**.)

A restrictive clause, when it is long, is followed by a comma; as, *Those who are accustomed to pass their lives amidst the din and bustle of a great city, sometimes lose their relish for the solitary beauty of the country.*

4. When an adverbial clause precedes the principal clause, the former is followed by a comma; as, *If he come soon I shall be glad.*

When an adverbial clause is introduced within a principal clause, or within a subordinate clause, it is preceded and followed by commas; as, *The man is, as I suppose, your friend. It was said that, when the Capitol was built, a human head was discovered in the excavation.*

5. Several co-ordinate dependent clauses, if their statements are not closely connected, or if their parts are set off by commas, are separated by semicolons; as, *Still more surprised were they to learn that, in order to have bread, wheat had to be sown in the ground; that grass was necessary for the production of milk; and that wine did not flow out of casks on turning the key.*

6. A formal quotation is inclosed in quotation marks, and, if introduced by a special word, is preceded by a colon; as, *Emerson says this: "The pest of society is egotists."*

When the quotation is closely connected with the thought expressed by the introductory words, it may be preceded by a comma; as, *Beware of the man who says, "I am on the eve of a discovery."*

When the quotation precedes the clause on which it depends, it is followed by a comma; as, *"A boy is better unborn than untaught," said Gascoigne.*

When a quotation depends upon a clause inserted parenthetically, the parenthesis is set off by commas; as, *"I have suffered more," says Landor, "from my bad dancing, than from all the misfortunes and miseries of my life put together."*

When a quotation or an illustration is introduced by *as*, or *namely*, a semicolon should be placed before the introductory word; and a comma, after it.

An indirect quotation is not inclosed in quotation marks.

EXERCISE 85.—*Punctuate the following complex sentences, and give a reason for the insertion of each point:*

1. A few eminent men that belonged to an earlier and better age were exempt from the general contagion.

2. If this were so the assassin must have afterward bitterly execrated his own wickedness and folly.

3. The scheme that he proposed showed considerable ingenuity.

4. What mean said I those great flights of birds that are perpetually hovering about the bridge and settling upon it from time to time.

5. These said the genius are envy avarice superstition despair love with the like cares and passions that infest human life.

6. I observe that men run away to other countries because they are not good in their own and run back to their own because they pass for nothing in the new place.

7. And I think it the part of good sense to provide every fine soul with such culture that it shall not at thirty or forty years have to say This which I might do is made hopeless through my want of weapons.

8. Boys and girls who have been brought up with well-informed and superior people show in their manners an inestimable grace.

9. Whilst we want cities as the centers where the best things are found cities degrade us by magnifying trifles.

10. And a tender boy who wears his rusty cap and outgrown coat that he may secure the coveted place in college and the right in the library is educated to some purpose.

Punctuation of the Compound Sentence.

613. The following are the principal rules for the punctuation of the compound sentence:

1. The clauses in a compound sentence are subject to the rules of punctuation that have been given for the simple sentence and the complex sentence.

2. Independent clauses, when they are not themselves subdivided by commas, and are related in meaning, are separated by commas; as, *On they go, and still more springs come, and the rivers grow larger and larger.* But when they are not closely connected in meaning, a semicolon is used; as, *The wise man's eyes are in his head; but the fool walketh in darkness.*

3. The clauses of a compound sentence, when they are themselves subdivided by commas, are separated by semicolons; as, *Having detained you so long already, I shall not trespass longer upon your patience; but, before concluding, I wish you to observe this truth.*

4. When a member of a sentence, so complete in itself that a period might be used, is followed by another member or by other members, containing some additional observation or illustration, a colon should be inserted before the latter; as, *Study to acquire a habit of thinking: no study is more important. The discourse consisted of two parts: in the first was shown the neces-*

sity of exercise; in the second, the advantages that would result from it.

A group of clauses of like construction, divided by semicolons, is separated from another clause, or from another group of clauses, by a colon; as, *The wise will determine from the gravity of the case; the irritable, from sensibility to oppression; the high-minded, from disdain and indignation at abusive power in unworthy hands; the brave and bold, from the love of honorable danger in a generous cause: but, with or without right, a revolution will be the very last resource of the thinking and the good.*

5. When the predicate verb is omitted from the second, or any subsequent member, and must be supplied from the preceding member, the omission is indicated by a comma; as, *To err is human; to forgive, divine.*

EXERCISE 86.—*Punctuate the following compound sentences, and give a reason for the insertion of each point:*

1. I have heard that throughout this country a certain respect is paid to good broad-cloth but dress makes a little restraint men will not commit themselves.

2. To a man at work the frost is but a color the rain the wind he forgot them when he came in.

3. Reading makes a full man conversation a ready man and writing an exact man.

4. From law arises security from security curiosity from curiosity knowledge.

5. Straws swim upon the surface but pearls lie at the bottom.

6. Stones grow vegetables grow and live animals grow live and feel.

7. Manners are very communicable men catch them from one another.

8. An eye can threaten like a loaded and leveled gun or can insult like hissing or kicking or in its altered mood by beams of kindness it can make the heart dance with joy.

9. What is done for effect is seen to be done for effect what is done for love is felt to be done for love.

10. Novels are the journal or record of manners and the new importance of these books is derived from the fact that the novelist begins to penetrate the surface and treat this part of life more worthily.

614. The **dash** is used (1) to mark an abrupt turn in a sentence; (2) to mark words in apposition; (3) to inclose an explanatory parenthetic clause; (4) to mark a significant pause that should be made in reading.

(1) His children—but here my heart began to bleed—and I was forced to go on with another part of the portrait.

(2) Then suddenly would come a dream of far different character—a tumultuous dream—commencing with a music such as now I often heard in sleep—music of preparation and of awakening suspense.

(3) In truth, the character of the great chief was depicted two thousand five hundred years before his birth, and depicted—such is the power of genius—in colors which will be fresh as many years after his death.

(4) Nature instantly ebbed again—the film returned to its place—the pulse fluttered — stopped — went on — throbbed — stopped again — moved—stopped.

615. The **parentheses** are used to inclose a remark that might be omitted without destroying the sense of the sentence; as,

Know then this truth (enough for man to know),
Virtue alone is happiness below.

616. The use of quotation marks has been already explained. When a quotation occurs within a quotation, the former should be inclosed within single inverted commas, the latter within double inverted commas; as, *Emerson says: "A great part of courage is the courage of having done the thing before. And, in all human action, those faculties will be strong which are used. Robert Owen said, 'Give me a tiger, and I will educate him.'"*

Some writers prefer to place the exterior quotation within single, and the interior within double, quotation marks.

When a quotation embraces several paragraphs, the introductory quotation marks should be placed at the beginning of each paragraph.

PARSING.

617. To **parse** a word is to state the part of speech to which it belongs, its properties, and its syntax. Following is the method of parsing each of the parts of speech:

I. NOUN:—1. Class; 2. Gender, number, and person; 3. Case; 4. Syntax, or the reason for its case; telling:

If nominative, of what finite verb it is the subject or predi-

cate complement, or that it is nominative by address, or nominative absolute.

If objective, of what verb or preposition it is the object, or of what infinitive it is the subject or complement, or, if used adverbially, what verb or adjective it modifies.

If possessive, what noun it modifies.

If in apposition, what noun it explains.

II. PRONOUN:—Parsed in the same manner as the noun, except that the noun for which the pronoun stands (the antecedent) should, when it is possible, be stated.

III. ADJECTIVE:—1. Class; 2. Degree of comparison; 3. Syntax—the noun or pronoun whose meaning is modified.

IV. VERB:—1. Conjugation—regular or irregular, and principal parts; 2. Class—transitive or intransitive; and, if transitive, its voice and the reason therefor; 3. Mode and tense, and the reason in each case; 4. Person and number, and the syntax, or reason for person and number.

V. PARTICIPLE:—1. From what verb derived; 2. Tense; 3. Transitive or intransitive; and, if transitive, its voice and the reason therefor; 4. Syntax—modifying the meaning of what noun or pronoun.

VI. GERUND:—1. From what verb derived; 2. Tense; 3. Transitive or intransitive; and, if transitive, its voice and the reason therefor; 4. Syntax—case, and reason for case.

VII. ADVERB:—1. Class; 2. Degree of comparison; 3. Syntax—modifying a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

VIII. PREPOSITION:—Syntax—its object and the relation that the phrase of which it is a part bears to some other word in the sentence.

IX. CONJUNCTION:—1. Class; 2. Syntax—words, phrases, or clauses connected.

618. To give the **syntax** of a word is to explain its relation, in accordance with the rules of *concord*, *government*, and *order*, to some other word or words in the sentence.

When the **syntax** of a word is asked, only what is indicated under that head in the foregoing scheme need be given.

Analysis.

619. Analysis in grammar is the process of separating a sentence into parts, according to their use. (See §§ **60-61.**)

620. The following directions apply to the analysis of all sentences, whether simple, complex, or compound:

1. See that the elements of the sentence are arranged in proper order.
2. See that the rules of syntax are not violated.
3. See that the sentence is properly punctuated, and, when necessary, be prepared to give the rule for each point inserted.
4. Supply all the ellipses.
5. State whether the sentence is simple, complex, or compound; declarative, interrogative, or imperative.
6. Point out the entire subject and the entire predicate. This may be conveniently done by drawing a single line under all the words that belong to the subject, and two lines under all the words that belong to the predicate.
7. The simple negative may be regarded as part of the predicate verb.
8. Interrogative adverbs may be regarded as adverbial modifiers of the meaning of the predicate verb.

Analysis of Simple Sentences.

621. The following directions apply to the analysis of simple sentences:

1. Point out the subject noun, pronoun, or phrase.
2. Point out the adjectives, or the equivalents of adjectives, that modify the meaning of the subject.
3. Point out the predicate verb.
4. Point out the modifiers of the meaning of the predicate verb.

5. If the verb is transitive and in the active voice, point out the object; and, if there is a supplement, point it out also.

6. If the verb is an incomplete intransitive verb, point out the predicate complement—noun, adjective, or phrase.

7. If there is an object, point out the modifiers of the meaning of the object.

8. If there is a predicate complement, point out the modifiers of its meaning.

9. A phrase, whether prepositional, infinitive, or participial, with all the words that depend upon, or modify, the principal word, may be regarded as a unit; that is, as the equivalent of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. When a detailed analysis is required, phrases may be analyzed in accordance with the models given in the following examples:

EXAMPLES.

1. Imperial Cæsar, dead and turned to clay,
Might stop a hole to keep the wind away.

A SIMPLE DECLARATIVE SENTENCE.

Subject noun, "Cæsar."

Modifiers, 1. "imperial"; *attributive adjective.*
2. "dead"; *appositive adjective.*
3. "turned to clay"; *appositive participial phrase;* the participle modified by the adverbial phrase, "to clay."

Predicate verb, "might stop."

Modifier, "to keep the wind away"; *infinitive adverbial phrase; verb, object, and adverbial modifier.*

Object noun, "hole."

Modifier, "a."

NOTE.—Notice that, in this scheme of analysis, modifying words are placed immediately after the element whose meaning they modify.

2. It is useless to assume airs of superiority.

A SIMPLE DECLARATIVE SENTENCE.

Subject pronoun, "It," *anticipative.*

Modifier, "to assume airs of superiority"; *infinitive noun phrase*, in apposition with "*it*," composed of *infinitive* "to

assume" and *object noun* "airs" modified by *adjective phrase* "of superiority."

Predicate verb, "is."

Predicate complement, "useless"; *adjective*.

Or we may call *it* the anticipative subject, and *to assume airs of superiority* the real subject.

3. Let us go home.

A Simple Imperative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "you," *understood*.

Predicate verb, "let."

Object phrase, "us (to) go home"; *noun phrase*, composed of *infinitive* (to) "go," *subject* "us," and *adverbial modifier* "home."

4. They made Claudius emperor.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "They."

Predicate verb, "made."

Object noun, "Claudius."

Supplement of predicate, "emperor," which is also an *appositive modifier* of the *object*.

5. He painted the house red.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "He."

Predicate verb, "painted."

Object noun, "house."

Modifier, "the."

Supplement of predicate, "red," which is also an *appositive modifier* of the *object*.

6. They asked him his business.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "They."

Predicate verb, "asked."

Modifier, "business," *adverbial objective* modified by "his."

Object pronoun, "him."

7. He was asked his business.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "He."

Predicate verb, "was asked."

Modifier, "business," *adverbial objective* modified by "his."

8. They found him dead.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "They."
Predicate verb, "found."
Object pronoun, "him."
Modifier, "dead," *appositive adjective.*

9. We are sometimes required to lay our natural affections on the altar.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "We."
Predicate verb, "are required."
Modifiers,
1. "sometimes."
2. "to lay our natural affections on the altar," *infinitive adverbial phrase*, composed of *infinitive* "to lay," modified by *prepositional adverbial phrase*, "on the altar," and having for *object* "affections," modified by "our" and "natural."

10. Their task being done, they went away.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "they."
Predicate verb, "went."
Modifiers,
1. "away."
2. "Their task being done," *participial adverbial phrase*, composed of *participle* and *noun* in the *nominative case independent.*

11. For us to do so, would be wrong.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject phrase, "For us to do so"; *infinitive noun phrase*, introduced by preposition "for," composed of *infinitive* "to do," modified by "so," and having "us" for subject.
Predicate verb, "would be."
Predicate complement, "wrong," *adjective.*

12. She gave me an apple to eat.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun, "She."
Predicate verb, "gave."

Modifiers,	"me" = (to) me, *adverbial phrase*. "to eat," *infinitive* used *adverbially*.
Object noun,	"apple."
Modifier,	"an."

13. There is gold here.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Introductory particle,	"There."
Subject noun,	"gold."
Predicate verb,	"is."
Predicate complement,	"here," *adverb* used as *adjective*

14. Why did you not give him the book?

A Simple Interrogative Sentence.

Subject pronoun,	"you."
Predicate verb,	"did not give."
Modifiers,	1. (to) "him," *adverbial phrase*. 2. "Why," *interrogative adverb*.
Object, noun,	"book."

15. It is time for the work to be finished.

A Simple Declarative Sentence.

Subject pronoun,	"It."
Predicate verb,	"is."
Predicate complement,	"time," *noun*.
Modifier,	"for the work to be finished," an *adjective phrase*, composed of preposition "for" and *infinitive noun phrase*, consisting of *infinitive* "to be finished," which has "the work" for *subject*.

For the method of analyzing simple sentences by means of diagrams, and for the analysis of simple sentences with compound elements, see § **79.**

622. When the sentence is long, and a detailed analysis is not called for, the following method, or that shown in § **79,** may be employed:

> But me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,
> Always from port withheld, always distressed,—
> The howling winds drive devious,—tempest-tossed,
> Sails rent, seams opening wide, and compass lost.

	Subject	*Predicate verb.*	*Object.*	*Predicate Complement.*	*Predicate Supplement.*
PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	Winds.	drive.	me.		devious.
Modifiers.	howling.	(1) sails rent. (2) seams opening wide. (3) compass lost. [*Nominatives absolute.*]	(1) scarce hoping to attain that rest. (2) always from port withheld. (3) always distressed. (4) tempest-tossed.		

EXERCISE 87.—*Analyze the following sentences in accordance with the preceding models, and parse each word printed in italics:*

1. Pleasantly *rose*, next morn, the sun, on the village of Grand Pré.

2. His withered cheek and tresses gray
Seemed *to have known* a better day.

3. We considered *him* to be too young for the situation.

4. We heard the thunder *roll*, and *saw* the lightning flash along the sky.

5. Now *is* the winter of our discontent
Made glorious summer by the son of York.

6. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.

7. My high-blown pride
At length *broke* under me.

8. *Slow* rises worth by poverty *depressed.*

9. One touch of nature makes the whole world *kin.*

10. I will make assurance doubly sure.

11. Louis of France *was elected* chief of the expedition.

12. Perseverance keeps honor bright.

13. A sable cloud
Turns forth her silver lining on the night.

14. At thirty, man suspects himself a *fool.*

15. We found her in her answers to have an eloquent tongue.

16. I know *that* virtue to be in you, Brutus.

17. All men think all men mortal, *but* themselves.

18. All our knowledge is ourselves to know.

19. To spend too much time in studies is sloth.

20. To be dull is construed to be good.

21. To gild refined gold is wasteful excess.

22. It is cruelty to beat a cripple with his own crutches.

23. 'Tis phrase absurd to call a villain great.

24. Our humbler province is to tend the fair.

25. That same prayer doth teach *us* all to render the deeds of mercy.

26. It is not for your health thus to commit
Your weak condition to the raw, cold morning.

27. Borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.

28. The *falling* out of faithful friends
Renewing is of love.

29. Of making many books there is no end.

30. You have condemned and noted Lucius Pella for *taking* bribes here of the Sardians.

31. *Teaching* is the best way of learning.

32. The poet's eye, in a fine frenzy rolling,
Doth glance from heaven to earth.

33. Envy is that dark shadow ever waiting upon a shining merit.

34. Wandering o'er the earth,
By falsities and lies, the greatest part
Of mankind they corrupted.

35. The quality of mercy is not strained.

36. Here, under leave of Brutus and the rest,
Come I to speak in Cæsar's funeral.

37. Thy wish was father to that thought.

38. His scepter shows the force of temporal power,
The attribute to awe and majesty.

39. Men are but children of a larger growth.
40. This was the noblest Roman of them all.
41. I come not to steal away your hearts.

Analysis of Complex Sentences.

623. The following directions apply to the analysis of complex sentences (see § **542**):

1. Conduct the analysis as if for every subordinate clause (see § **543**) we had some single word; that is, as if a noun stood in place of a noun clause; an adjective, in place of an adjective clause; and an adverb, in place of an adverbial clause.

2. When this has been done, if a detailed analysis is required, proceed to analyze each subordinate clause in the same way a simple sentence is analyzed.

3. If two or more subordinate clauses are co-ordinate (see § **510**), analyze each separately.

4. If a clause is complex (see § **558**), conduct the analysis as if the contained clause were a single word, and then analyze the contained clause after the manner of a simple sentence.

5. As a general rule, it may be said that each sentence has as many clauses as it has finite verbs. The only exception is when the predicate of a clause is compound; that is, when it is composed of two finite verbs, connected by a co-ordinate conjunction.

6. When a clause is long, it is sufficient in writing to give its opening and closing words, and to represent the omitted words by asterisks.

Examples.

1. That he came, is certain.

(A) Complex Declarative Sentence.	*Subject*,	"That he came," *noun clause* (B)
	Predicate verb,	"is."
	Predicate complement,	"certain," *adjective.*
(B) Noun Clause.	*Connective*,	"That."
	Subject pronoun,	"he."
	Predicate verb,	"came."

2. The opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty.

(A) Complex Declarative Sentence.	*Subject noun*,	"opinion."
	Modifiers,	1. "The." 2. "of the judge," *adjective phrase.*
	Predicate verb,	"was."
	Predicate complement,	"that the prisoner was guilty," *noun clause* (B).
(B) Noun Clause.	*Connective*,	"that."
	Subject noun,	"prisoner."
	Modifier,	"the."
	Predicate verb,	"was."
	Predicate complement,	"guilty," *adjective.*

3. Tell me what you bought at the fair.

(A) Complex Imperative Sentence.	*Subject pronoun*,	(you), *understood.*
	Predicate verb,	"tell."
	Modifier,	(to) "me," *adverbial phrase.*
	Object clause,	"what you bought at the fair" (B).
(B) Noun Clause.	*Subject pronoun*,	"you."
	Predicate verb,	"bought."
	Modifier,	"at the fair," *adverbial phrase.*
	Object pronoun,	"what" (*interrogative*).

4. (*a*) I told him that he was mistaken. (*b*) I convinced him that he was mistaken.

In the first sentence, (to) "him" is an *adverbial phrase* modifying "told," and the *object* is the *noun clause*, "that he was mistaken." In the second, "him" is the *object*, and "that he was mistaken" is a *noun clause* used as an *adverbial objective.* (See § 534.)

5. The report, that the general was dead, spread over the field.

"That the general was dead" is a *noun clause* in apposition with "report."

6. Who can want the thought, how monstrous it was for Malcolm and Donalbain to kill their gracious father?

(A) Complex Interrogative Sentence.	*Subject pronoun*,	"who," *interrogative.*
	Predicate verb,	"can."*
	Modifier,	"want the thought," *infinitive adverbial phrase*, *infinitive* and *object.*
	Modifier of "thought,"	"how monstrous * * * father," *noun clause* in apposition with *thought* (B).

* Those who believe in retaining the so-called "potential mode" (§ 433), will regard "can want" as the predicate verb. Similarly, *may* and *must.*

(B) NOUN CLAUSE.
- *Subject pronoun*, "it," *anticipative.*
- *Modifier of subject*, "for * * * father," *infinitive noun phrase*, in apposition with "it."
- *Predicate verb*, "was."
- *Predicate complement*, "monstrous." *adjective.*
- *Modifier*, "how," *adverb.*

7. To know how ignorant we are, is the first step toward knowledge.

The *subject* of the sentence is the expression, "to know how ignorant we are," composed of the *infinitive* "to know" and its *object*, the *noun clause*, "how ignorant we are."

8. I have sinned in that I have betrayed the innocent blood.

The words "in * * * blood" constitute an *adverbial modifier* of "have sinned," which is composed of the *preposition* "in" and its *object*, the *noun clause*, "that * * * blood."

9. The cohort that had already crossed the river, quickly came to blows with the enemy.

(A) COMPLEX DECLARATIVE SENTENCE.
- *Subject noun*, "cohort."
- *Modifiers of subject*,
  1. "The."
  2. "that had already crossed the river," *adjective clause* (B).
- *Predicate verb*, "came."
- *Modifiers*,
  1. "quickly," *adverb.*
  2. "to blows," *adverbial phrase.*
  3. "with the enemy," *adverbial phrase.*

(B) ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.
- *Subject pronoun*, "that," *relative.*
- *Predicate verb*, "had crossed."
- *Modifier*, "already," *adverb.*
- *Object noun*, "river."
- *Modifier*, "the."

10. I know the place where he was born.

(A) COMPLEX DECLARATIVE SENTENCE.
- *Subject pronoun*, "I."
- *Predicate verb*, "know."
- *Object noun*, "place."
- *Modifiers*,
  1. "the."
  2. "where he was born," *adjective clause* (B).

(B) Adjective Clause.	*Connective*,	"where," *conjunctive adverb.*
	Subject pronoun,	"he."
	Predicate verb,	"was born."

11. Where thou dwellest, I will dwell.

(A) Complex Declarative Sentence.	*Subject*,	"I."
	Predicate verb,	"will dwell."
	Modifier,	"where thou dwellest," *adverbial clause of place.*
(B) Adverbial Clause.	*Connective*,	"where," *conjunctive adverb.*
	Subject pronoun,	"thou."
	Predicate verb,	"dwellest.

12. He ran so fast, that he was quite weary.

(A) Complex Declarative Sentence.	*Subject pronoun*,	"He."
	Predicate verb,	"ran."
	Modifier,	"fast," *adverb.*
	Co-ordinate modifiers of "fast,"	1. "so," *adverb.* 2. "that he was quite weary," *adverbial clause* (B).
(B) Adverbial Clause.	*Connective*,	"that," *subordinate conjunction.*
	Subject pronoun,	"he."
	Predicate verb,	"was."
	Predicate complement,	"weary," *adjective.*
	Modifier,	"quite," *adverb.*

Some authorities would make the adverbial clause, in a sentence like the above, modify the adverb "so." Others, again, would make it modify the idea expressed by *so fast.*

13. He spoke loud, that I might hear him.

The *adverb* "loud" and the *adverbial clause*, "that I might hear him," are *co-ordinate adverbial modifiers* of the predicate verb *spoke.* Or the clause may be said to modify the idea expressed by *spoke loud.*

14. The flinty couch we now must share,
Shall seem with down of eider piled,
If thy protection hover near.

(The following is a tabular form of analysis for complex sentences. It will be noticed that the modifiers of each of the principal elements are placed directly under the word modified, except in the case of a modifier of the predicate when the latter is composed of an incomplete intransitive verb and a predicate complement.)

Kind.	*Connective.*	*Subject.*	*Predicate verb.*	*Object.*	*Predicate complement.*	*Modifiers of predicate.*
(A) COMPLEX DECLARATIVE SENTENCE.		*couch.* 1. The 2. flinty 3. we—share (B.) *Adjective clause.*	*shall seem*		*piled* with down of eider, *Adverbial phrase.*	if—near, *Adverbial clause* (C).
(B) ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.	contained in relat. pronoun understood.	we	*must* (to) share (which), *infin. adv. phrase.*			
(C) ADVERBIAL CLAUSE.	if	*protection* thy	*hover* near.			

For the method of analyzing complex sentences by means of diagrams, see § 80.

EXERCISE 88.—*Analyze the following complex sentences, and parse the words printed in italics:*

1. But when he once attains the upmost round,
   He then unto the ladder turns his back.

2. No man can wade *deep* in learning, without *discovering* that he knows nothing thoroughly.

3. The opinion of all men was that the undertaking was doubtful.

4. To the noble mind
   Rich gifts *wax* poor, when givers prove *unkind*.

5. *As* the tree falls, *so* it will lie.

6. Although we seldom follow advice, we are all ready *enough* to ask it.

7. Some maintain that to this day she is a living child.

8. *Consider* this,
   That, in the course of justice, none of us
   Should see salvation.—*Shakespeare.*

9. The heart distrusting asks, if this *be* joy.

10. He jests at scars, *that* never felt a wound.

11. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.—*Shakespeare*

12. The play is the thing
Wherein I'll catch the conscience of the king.
—*Shakespeare.*

13. Thou art the ruins of the noblest man
That ever lived in the tide of times.—*Shakespeare.*

14. Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a *prey*,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.—*Goldsmith.*

15. Let all the ends thou aim'st at *be* thy country's,
Thy God's, and Truth's.—*Shakespeare.*

16. The vile strength man *wields*
For earth's destruction, thou dost *all* despise,
Hurling him from thy bosom to the skies.

17. Who was to represent the Queen of Beauty and of Love, on the present occasion, no one was prepared to guess.—*Scott.*

18. I thought ten thousand swords must have leaped from their scabbards to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult.—*Burke.*

19. I can't forget that I'm bereft
Of all the pleasant sights they *see*,
Which the Piper also promised me.—*Robert Browning.*

20. The part of the mill she liked best was the topmost story, where *were* the great heaps of grain, which she could sit on and slide down continually.—*George Eliot.*

21. *Him thought** he by the brook of Cherith stood
And saw the ravens with their horny beaks
Food to Elijah bringing even and morn.—*Milton.*

22. She had told Tom that she should like *him* to put the worms on the hook for her, although she accepted his word when he assured her, that worms couldn't feel.—*George Eliot.*

23. Use can make *sweet* the peach's shady side,
That only by reflection tastes of sun.—*Lowell.*

* See § 337.

Analysis of Compound Sentences.

624. The following directions apply to the analysis of compound sentences (§ **559**):

1. Separate the sentence into its several co-ordinate clauses. (See § **559.**)

2. State the connectives and the kind of co-ordination. (See § **560.**)

3. If a co-ordinate clause is a simple sentence, analyze it as such; if it is a complex sentence, analyze it as such.

625. The only compound sentences that present difficulties not found in the analysis of simple and complex sentences, are those in which the relative pronoun has a *co-ordinative* or *continuative* force.

Mr. Mason gives the following examples:

1. At last it chaunced this proud Sarazin
To meete me wand'ring; who perforce me led
With him away but never yet could win.

Co-ordinate Clauses.

(1.) At last it chaunced this proud Sarazin to meete me wand'ring.
(2.) Who perforce me led with him away.
(3.) [Who] never yet could win [me].

Analysis of (1).

Subject pronoun,	"it," *anticipative.*
Modifier of subject,	"to meete me wand'ring," *noun phrase in apposition.*
Predicate verb,	"chaunced."
Modifiers,	1. "at last," *adverb.* 2. (to) "this proud Sarazin," *adverbial phrase.*

Clauses (1) and (2) are co-ordinate with (A), *who* being equivalent to *and he.* The co-ordination is, therefore, copulative.

2. This is now our doom, which if we can sustain and bear, our supreme foe in time may much remit his anger.

Co-ordinate Clauses.

(1.) "This is now our doom.
(2.) Which if we can sustain and bear, our supreme foe in time may much remit his anger.'

ANALYSIS OF (2).

PRINCIPAL CLAUSE.	*Subject noun,*	"foe."
	Modifiers,	1. "our," *pronoun in possessive case.* 2. "supreme," *adjective.*
	Predicate verb,	"may remit," *in subjunctive mode.*
	Modifiers of predicate,	1. "much," *adverb.* 2. "in time," *adverbial phrase.* 3. "which—and bear," *adverbial clause of condition* (A).
	Object noun,	"anger."
	Modifier,	"his," *pronoun in possessive case.*

ANALYSIS OF (A).

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE.	*Connective,*	"if," *subordinate conjunctive.*
	Subject pronoun,	"we."
	Predicate verb,	"can."
	Modifiers,	"sustain and bear," *infinitives.*
	Object pronoun,	"which," *co-ordinating relative.*

EXERCISE 89.—*Analyze the following compound sentences, and parse the words printed in italics:*

1. E'en from the tomb the voice of Nature cries,
   E'en in our ashes live their wonted fires.—*Gray.*

2. Great Nature spoke; observant man obeyed;
   Cities were formed; societies were made.

3. Thus to relieve the wretched was his pride,
   And e'en his failings leaned to virtue's side.
   —*Goldsmith.*

4. His face
   Deep scars of thunder had intrenched; and care
   Sat on his faded cheek.

5. Cæsar was an able commander, or Gaul would not have been conquered.

6. It is an honor for a man to cease from strife; but every fool will be meddling.

7. The wise man's eyes are in his head; but the fool walketh in darkness.

8. We are commanded *to forgive* our enemies; but we are nowhere commanded to forgive our friends.

9. Through faith we understand that the worlds were framed

by the word of God, so that *things which* are seen are not made of things which do appear.—*Bible.*

10. This is the Arsenal; from floor to ceiling,
Like a huge organ, *rise* the burnished arms;
But from their silent pipes no anthem *pealing*
Startles the villages with strange alarms.
—*Longfellow.*

11. *Peace!* and no longer from its brazen portals
The blast of War's great organ shakes the skies!
But *beautiful* as songs of the immortals,
The holy melodies of love arise.—*Longfellow.*

12. The quality of mercy is not strain'd,
It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
Upon the place beneath: it is twice bless'd;
It blesseth him that gives, and him that takes:
'Tis mightiest in the mightiest; it becomes
The throned monarch better than his *crown.*

EXERCISE 90.—*Analyze the following sentences, and parse the words printed in italics:*

1. The flora and fauna of a country as seen from railroad trains and carriages, are not likely to be very accurately or exhaustively studied.—*Holmes.*

2. You will find as you look back upon your life that the moments that stand out, the moments when you have really lived, are the moments when you have done things in a spirit of love.—*Henry Drummond.*

3. To be hurried away by every event is to have no political system at all.—*Napoleon.*

4. To be conscious of a need or a deficiency is to be far on the way whereby we shall at last overcome it.—*Greeley.*

5. In regard to language itself, the habit of reading pure English, and of employing it every day, is the best drill for a talker.—*H. W. Beecher.*

6. To marshal one's verbal battalions in such order that they may bear at once upon all quarters of a subject is certainly a great art.—*E. P. Whipple.*

7. Whenever you attempt a good work you will find other men doing the same kind of work, and probably doing it better.—*Henry Drummond.*

8. After you have been kind, after Love has stolen forth into the world and done its beautiful work, go back into the shade again and say nothing about it.—*Henry Drummond.*

9. Carlyle said of Robert Burns, that there was no truer gentleman in Europe than the ploughman-poet.—*Henry Drummond.*

10. Live as though life were earnest, and life will be so.—*Meredith.*

11. Nature, like a cautious testator, ties up her estate so as not to bestow all on one generation; but has a forelooking tenderness and equal regard to the next and the next and the fourth and the fortieth.—*Emerson.*

12. We know not whither the hunter went,
Or how the last of his days was spent;
For the moon drew nigh—but he came not back
Weary and faint from his forest track.—*Whittier.*

13. But neither fools nor sages, neither individuals nor nations, have any other light to guide them along the track which all must tread, save that long glimmering vista of yesterdays which grows so swiftly fainter and fainter as the present fades into the past.—*Motley.*

14. For embittering life, for breaking up communities, for destroying the most sacred relationships, for devastating homes, for withering up men and women, for taking the bloom off childhood, in short, for sheer gratuitous misery-producing power, evil temper stands alone.—*Henry Drummond.*

15. There is one lesson to be got from a visit of an hour or two to the British Museum; namely, the fathomless abyss of our own ignorance.—*O. W. Holmes.*

16. Unspoken homilies of peace
Her daily life is preaching;
The still refreshment of the dew
Is her unconscious teaching.—*Whittier.*

17. Love "thinketh no evil," imputes no motive, sees the bright side, puts the best construction on every action.—*Henry Drummond.*

18. I agree with the commercial traveler who says that it will only be in the millennium that all goods will be alike on both sides.—*C. D. Warner.*

19. Each separate star
Seems nothing; but a myriad scattered stars
Break up the night and make it beautiful.—*B. Taylor.*

20. Ring out false pride in place and blood,
The civic slander and the spite;
Ring in the love of truth and right,
Ring in the common love of good.—*Tennyson.*

21. We heard the roar
Of Ocean on his wintry shore,
And felt the strong pulse throbbing there
Beat with low rhythm our inland air.—*Whittier.*

22. A chill no coat, however stout,
Of homespun stuff could quite keep out,
A hard, dull bitterness of cold,
That checked mid-vein, the circling race
Of life-blood in the sharpened face,
The coming of the snow-storm told.—*Whittier.*

23. If thou art worn and hard beset
With sorrows that thou wouldst forget,

If thou wouldst read a lesson that will keep
Thy heart from fainting and thy soul from sleep,
Go to the woods and hills! No tears
Dim the sweet look that Nature wears.—*Longfellow.*

CHAPTER VI.

ECONOMY OF ATTENTION.

626. The most important principle governing the use of language is this: A sentence should be so constructed as to be understood with the least possible effort on the part of the reader or hearer. The attention of the reader or hearer should be economized as much as possible.

A few of the more important rules and cautions derived from this principle are given below.

627. Use as few words as possible, provided the meaning is perfectly clear.

1. The number of words may often be reduced and vivacity may be given to the expression by employing a simple sentence instead of one that is complex or compound.*

EXERCISE 91.—*Change the following complex sentences to simple, and tell in each case how the change is effected:*

COMPLEX.—*We think that his society is a great privilege.*
SIMPLE.—*We think his society a great privilege.*

2. Do you intend that this answer shall be final?
3. Have you ever known that he told a falsehood?
4. Gessler ordered that every Swiss should bow to the hat.
5. I can not answer your query as to how poultry should be reared.
6. I think that this home-work is an easy task.

* The *balanced structure* must be excepted from this rule, as it imparts clearness, simplicity, and energy to the sentence. A BALANCED SENTENCE is a sentence, the different parts of which are made similar in form; as, *God made the country; man made the town. He says what he means, and he means what he says.* When there is an apparent contradiction between the terms, we have an epigram, as, *Set a thief to catch a thief.*

EXERCISE 92.—*Change the following complex sentences to simple, and point out how each change is effected:*

COMPLEX.—*The onion is a root which has a strong and piercing flavor.*

SIMPLE.—*The onion is a root of strong and piercing flavor.*

2. There is something else which you may discover about a blue-fish.

3. Columbus was the first European who set foot on the newly-discovered continent.

4. Julius Cæsar, who was a great military commander, was the first emperor of Rome.

5. The house that my father owns, is pleasantly located.

6. Washington, who was our first President, will always be revered and beloved.

7. He poured the wine into the only bottles that remained.

8. He was overwhelmed with grief when he heard of the loss of his friend.

9. I shall console myself with the thought that I have deserved success.

EXERCISE 93.—*Change the following complex sentences to simple, and point out how each change is effected:*

COMPLEX.—*There is a time when we may sow and a time when we may reap.*

SIMPLE.—*There is a time for sowing and a time for reaping;* or, *There is a time to sow and a time to reap.*

2. I was much gratified when I heard your promise.

3. You will be amused when you read my report.

4. I was greatly encouraged because I heard you say so.

5. This fort was erected that the harbor might be defended.

6. Is there any evidence by which this charge is supported?

7. That peace may be preserved, I will drop the subject.

8. The new minister was anxious that he might promote reforms.

9. We were sorry that we parted with him.

10. The cargo was thrown over, that the ship might be lightened.

11. The wind was so strong that it drove the vessel ashore.

12. What have we done that we should be treated so?

13. Philadelphia stands where the Schuylkill joins the Delaware.

14. As soon as we had received the news we set out.

15. As the weather was bad, we remained within doors.

16. They will do their utmost that they may prevent his election.

17. The ship is so near the shore that it is in danger.

EXERCISE 94.—*Change the following compound sentences to simple, and point out how each change is effected:*

COMPOUND.—*The schooner long struggled with the storm, but in the end it succumbed to its fate.*

SIMPLE.—*The schooner having long struggled with the storm, in the end succumbed to its fate.*

2. By this time July was far advanced; and the state of the city was, hour by hour, becoming more frightful.

3. The plant first puts out its leaves and then the flower comes.

4. The fence is strong, and yet it is not heavy.

5. The spider is a very small animal, but it is interesting from its way of living.

6. Alexander the Great conquered the world, and then he sighed for more worlds to conquer.

7. The night threatened to be very uncomfortable; for the wind rose and the rain began to fall.

8. Many can conquer their anger, but they can not conquer their pride.

2. The number of words may often be reduced, and the relations between ideas may be more clearly brought out, by combining two or more simple sentences into a complex sentence, a compound sentence, or a simple sentence, as may be found most desirable.

EXERCISE 95.—*Combine each of the following groups of sentences into a simple, a complex, or a compound sentence.*

Tell the means employed to effect the combination.

Test the resulting sentence by applying the rules for the order of words found in §§ **593-602**.

Analyze the resulting sentence.

1. The Hindoos were astonished at the performance of the plough. They painted it. They set it up. They worshiped it. Thus they turned a tool into an idol.

COMPLEX.—*So astonished were the Hindoos at the performances of the plough, that they painted it, set it up, worshiped it, thus turning a tool into an idol.*

COMPOUND.—*The Hindoos were astonished at the performances of the plough; hence they painted it, set it up, and worshiped it, thus turning a tool into an idol.*

SIMPLE.—*Astonished at the performances of the plough, the Hindoos painted it, set it up, and worshiped it, thus turning a tool into an idol.*

2. Christopher Columbus was the most renowned of all discoverers. He was born in the city of Genoa. Genoa is in Italy.

3. When Columbus was a boy, there was a prince of Portugal. Don Henrique was his name. He is known to us as Prince Henry the Navigator.

4. Columbus sailed from Spain on the 3d of August, 1492. He had three small vessels. Two of them were without decks. He was more than two months on the voyage.

5. Raleigh was one of the most brilliant men at the court of Queen Elizabeth. He was also one of the most ambitious. He certainly was one of the most gifted men of that brilliant time.

6. John Rolfe seems to have been fond of new experiments. He was

the same who married Pocahontas. He thought he might grow tobacco in Virginia for the English market. He thought he could do so if the Virginia Indians could grow tobacco for their own use.

7. Manhattan Island was sold to the Dutch by the Indians. On it New York now stands. The price was about twenty-four dollars in trading wares.

8. A maid-servant in Massachusetts was left alone with little children. An Indian tried to enter the house. She drove him away by firing a musket at him and throwing a shovelful of live coals on his head.

9. Tea was not known in England when the first colonies were settled. Coffee was not known in this country when the first colonies were settled. They became known long afterward.

10. The Middle colonies raised wheat. The colonies on Chesapeake Bay raised tobacco. The Southern colonies raised rice and indigo. The soil of New England was not suited to any agricultural staple of great value. The climate of New England was not suited to any agricultural staple of great value.

11. In New York City and in Philadelphia there were a great many slaves. There were not many in the country regions about these cities. The reason was that wheat was the chief crop. It did not require much hard labor.

12. All the French possessions in America, east of the Mississippi, were ceded to England. A district around New Orleans was excepted. This was by the treaty between England and France. It was made in 1763.

13. Patrick Henry took the lead in the agitation in Virginia. He was a brilliant speaker. James Otis was the principal orator in Massachusetts. He was an eloquent Boston lawyer.

14. A government was to be established. It was to be without a throne. It was to be without an aristocracy. It was to be without castes, orders, or privileges. This government was not to be a democracy existing and acting within the walls of a single city. It was to be extended over a vast country. That country is of different climates, interests, and habits, and of various communions of our common Christian faith.

15. I could see persons dressed in glorious habits, with garlands upon their heads. I could see them passing among the trees. I could see them lying down by the sides of the fountains, or resting on beds of flowers. I could hear a confused harmony of singing birds, falling waters, human voices, and musical instruments.

628. Long, involved sentences are a severe strain upon the attention. If the clauses are so closely connected that they can not be thrown into separate sentences, observe the following rules:

1. Put a conditional clause before a consequent. (See § **557**.)

If thou didst ever thy dear father love, revenge his foul and most unnatural murder.—*Shakespeare.*

2. When the subject of each of several dependent clauses is the same, and particularly when it is a relative pronoun, repeat the subject; as,

I have no misgiving at all, that they will be ungenerous or harsh toward a man *who* has been so long before the eyes of the world; *who* has so many to speak of him from personal knowledge; *whose* natural impulse it has ever been to speak out; *who* has ever spoken too much rather than too little; *who* would have saved himself many a scrape, if he had been wise enough to hold his tongue; *who* has ever been fair to the doctrines and arguments of his opponents; *who* has never slurred over facts and reasonings which told against himself.—*John Henry Newman.*

3. Where there are several clauses introduced by the same subordinate conjunction, or conjunctive adverb, repeat the connective word; as,

You wonder *why* I do not grow dull as those around me, whose talk is of bullocks—as indeed mine is, often enough; *why* I am not by this time "all over blue mould"; *why* I have not been tempted to bury myself in my study, and live a life of dreams among old books.—*Charles Kingsley.*

4. Where there are several nouns forming the subject, and where it is desired to call attention to them, a demonstrative *these* may be introduced as the subject of the verb:

Commerce and manufactures, railways and telegraphs, banks and exchanges, the locomotive and the cotton-gin,—*these* are not essential elements in the life of a great nation.

As a rule, however, this construction should be avoided.

629. Economy of attention requires that a sentence should have one, and only one, principal subject of thought.

1. An abrupt change in the subject of the verb generally implies a sudden change in the thought; and hence two sentences, not one, should be employed. *After a long and tedious journey I arrived at my brother's house in Washington, where stands the National Capitol,* should be thrown into two sentences.

2. Do not introduce too many particulars into a sentence, especially where the dependent clauses modify one another's meaning, instead of the meaning of the independent clause.

The only way to correct a long sentence of this character, is to break it up into two or more short sentences, in accordance with the rule given in § **629.**

EXERCISE 96.—*Re-write the following, making corrections, wherever necessary, in accordance with the rules given above:*

In my wicker-ware I also improved much, and made abundance of necessary baskets, as well as my invention showed me, though not very handsome, yet convenient for my laying up things in, or fetching things home in. For example, if I killed a goat abroad, I could hang it up in a tree, flay it, and dress it, and cut it in pieces, and bring it home in a basket: and the like by a turtle; I could cut it up, take out the eggs, and a piece or two of the flesh, which was enough for me, and bring them home in a basket, and leave the rest behind me. Also large deep baskets were the receivers for my corn, which I always rubbed out as soon as it was dry, and cured, and kept it in great baskets instead of a granary.—*Defoe.*

"Robinson Crusoe" abounds in sentences of this kind, which present admirable material for exercises in style.

630. Be careful to observe the rules for the repetition of the article. (See §§ **316-321.**)

EXERCISE 97.—*In the following sentences, insert the article where necessary:*

1. A cotton and silk umbrella were found in the depot.
2. She has two brothers, a tall and short one.
3. The dog and cat are lying in front of the stove.
4. Which is the larger, the box or trunk?
5. Some think Napoleon was a better general than an emperor.
6. The carriage was broken; but neither the driver nor horse was injured.
7. Both the house and stable are for sale.
8. Lincoln was both an honest and conscientious man.
9. Lincoln was an honest and a conscientious man.
10. Neither the first nor second chapter is interesting.

631. Economy of attention requires the avoidance of **pleonasm**, or the expression of some part of the meaning more than once. The most frequent *pleonasms* are the following:

1. The use of a noun and a pronoun to indicate the same person or thing; as, *My **banks, they** are furnished with bees.* This construction is, however, sometimes used in poetry to lend force to the expression; as, *The deck, it was their field of fame.*

2. *Double negation.* Two negatives destroy each other, or are equivalent to an affirmative; as, ***Nor** did they **not** perceive him. = They did perceive him. I can not drink no more. He will never be no taller.*

3. *Tautology,* the unnecessary repetition of the same word, or the repetition of the same meaning in different words ; as, *It was founded mainly on the **entire** monopoly of the **whole** trade with the colonies.*

EXERCISE 98.—*Correct the errors in the following sentences:*

1. He doesn't know nothing about the matter.
2. You don't know hardly anything about him.
3. I can not scarcely comprehend the enormity of the offense.
4. She hasn't learned her lessons yet, I don't think.
5. If you want to vote, you had better hurry, for you have not scarcely a moment left.
6. Neither his father nor his mother knew nothing about it.
7. I have received no information on the subject, neither from him, nor from his friend.
8. I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present nor at any other time.
9. I can not by no means permit you to do it.
10. Charles hasn't got any money.
11. The friends separated and walked in two opposite directions.
12. The English, they won the battle of Waterloo.
13. General Sheridan, the officer of whom we were speaking, he was not a tall man.
14. At the Liliputian Bazaar, ready-made clothing can be bought for small boys and children.
15. The troops which the chiefs commanded, were divided into three divisions.
16. In a few weeks he was at the head of 1500 troops, chiefly horsemen, at the head of which he entered Jassy.
17. To it alone I shall confine myself.
18. It was almost intolerable to be borne.
19. It was want of imagination I suppose that failed them.

632. The **direct** form of quotation gives the words of a speaker or writer exactly as they were spoken or written ; the **indirect** form gives them as reported by another; as,

DIRECT.—"*I will arise and go to my father,*" *he said.*
INDIRECT.—*He said he would arise and go to his father.*

Use the *direct* form when you wish to impart liveliness to the narrative, or when it is necessary to prevent ambiguity in the use of *he* or *she* or *it.* In *She told her teacher that she did not know what she was doing,* it is difficult to tell whether the pupil is making an impudent remark or confessing her ignorance.

The ambiguity is removed by using the *direct* form, *She said to her teacher, "I do not know what I am doing."*

633. The principal changes from the direct to the indirect form of quotation are these:

1. The first and second persons are changed to the third; as, *Stay with me = They should stay with him.*

2. A present tense is changed to its corresponding past; as, *I can not remain = He could not remain.*

3. The imperative mode is changed to the future subjunctive, or *must* followed by an infinitive; as, *Let them go = They should* (or *must*) *allow them to go.*

EXERCISE 99.—*Change the following passages from the indirect form to the direct:*

1. He said he had often left his childish sports to ramble alone in the woods.

2. Lord Chatham observed that the people whom they at first despised as rebels, but whom they now acknowledged as enemies, were abetted against them, supplied with every military store, had their interests consulted and their ambassadors entertained by their inveterate enemy—and ministers did not, dared not, interpose with dignity and effect.

3. Robert Emmet said that no man must dare when he was dead to charge him with dishonor; that no man must attaint his memory by believing that he could have engaged in any cause but that of his country's liberty and independence; or that he could have become the pliant minion of power in the oppression or the miseries of his countrymen.

4. Webster said they consecrated their work to the spirit of national independence, and that they wished that the light of peace might rest upon it forever. They came, as Americans, to mark a spot, which must forever be dear to them and their posterity.

5. Henry Clay said they were fighting a great moral battle, for the benefit, not only of their country, but of all mankind. The eyes of the whole world were in fixed attention upon them.

634. Economy of attention is secured by arranging words, phrases, or clauses, bearing upon the same thought in such a way that each succeeding term shall be stronger or more expressive than that which precedes. This is called **climax.**

What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how infinite in faculty! in form and moving, how express and admirable! in action, how like an angel! in apprehension, how like a god!—*Shakespeare.*

The reason is that, after receiving a brilliant or terrible thought, the mind can not appreciate a weaker one; just as the eyes after looking at the sun can not perceive the light of a fire. Whereas, if the weaker be presented first, and the stronger afterward, both will be understood.

635. As economy of attention requires that the mind should be brought to a thought in the shortest and easiest possible way, a decided gain is often effected by putting a part for the whole. Thus, *a fleet of ten **sail*** presents a more easily grasped picture of vessels at sea than *a fleet of ten ships.* Bringing ***gray hairs** with sorrow to the grave,* and *employing a hundred **hands,*** are other examples. This is called **synecdoche.**

636. A thought is often more easily understood by comparing one thing with another which it resembles in some respect; as, *The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold.* This is called **simile.** The words *like* or *as* are generally used to express the comparison. A **simile,** when fully expressed, contains four terms which may be treated as a proportion:

A : B : : C : D.

Thus, *As the **wolf** comes down on a **fold,** so the **Assyrian** came down on the **city.***

EXERCISE 100.—*Express fully the following similes:*

1. We all do fade as a leaf.
2. Their ranks are breaking like thin clouds before a Biscay gale.
3. Fragrance, pure as light, floats all around.
4. Black were her eyes as the berry that grows by the wayside.
5. The gates once opened, our men poured into the town like a flood.
6. The righteous shall flourish as the palm-tree.
7. Many a flower, radiant as dew, glances on every spray.

637. When the comparison between two things which resemble each other is made still more vivid by the omission of words denoting comparison, such as *like* or *as,* we have what is called **metaphor**; as, *The ship **ploughs** the sea.* This, when fully expressed, becomes a simile: *As the plough cleaves the land, so the ship cleaves the sea.*

EXERCISE 101.—*Expand the following metaphors into similes, and state each simile fully:*

1. The atmosphere rises above us with its cathedral dome.
2. The cold weather sheds its snow feathers on the earth.
3. Man! thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear.
4. Thy word is a lamp to my feet, and a light to my path.
5. I will be unto her a wall of fire round about.
6. The prophet ascended, and left the mantle of his inspiration to his successor.
7. One burnished sheet of living gold, Loch Katrine lay beneath him rolled.
8. In peace, thou art the gale of spring; in war, the mountain storm.
9. There is a blush on the cheek of night.
10. I speared him with a jest.

EXERCISE 102.—*Compress the similes in Exercise 100 into metaphors.*

CHAPTER VII.

PROSODY.

638. Prosody is that part of grammar which treats of the rules that govern verse. (See §§ **100, 101.**)

639. Verse, as distinguished from prose, is the name given to the peculiar structure of language employed in *poetry.*

The word *verse* is derived from the stem *vers* = turn, and is so called because when the writer has written a certain number of syllables he *turns*, as it were, and commences a new line. Originally, the word was applied only to a *line* of poetry. It is now, however, used to designate the general structure of poetry, as well as a group of lines of poetry, and even one of the subdivisions of a chapter in the Bible.

640. The chief distinction between *verse* and *prose* is that the former is marked by the recurrence, at regular intervals, of syllables that must be accented by the voice in reading. This regular recurrence of accent is called **rhythm.**

The word rhythm comes from a Greek word, meaning *measured motion.*

641. A foot is a group of two or three syllables upon one of which the accent, or stress of the voice, falls in reading.

642. Meter, or measure, is determined by the number and kind of feet in a line. Thus:

I sprang | to the stir | rup, and Jo | ris and he,
I gal | loped, Dirck gal | loped, we gal | loped all three.—*R. Browning.*

643. Rhythm is essential to verse. Rime, on the other hand, is not essential, but is very generally used as an additional ornament.

Rime is usually spelled *rhyme*, but the older spelling (*rime*), "which is etymologically preferable, is coming into use again."—WEBSTER'S INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY, 1890.

644. Rime consists in the similarity of sound in the final syllable or syllables of two or more words. Three things are essential to a perfect *rime:*

1. The vowel sounds of the riming syllables, and, if the vowels are followed by consonants, the consonant sounds, must be the same; as, ***try*** and ***cry, light*** and ***sprite.*** Identity of sound, not of letters, is required. *Lose* and *close* do not rime.

2. The consonant sounds preceding the vowels must be different; as, ***way*** and ***lay, sour*** and ***power.***

3. Similarity of accent; as, *sing* and *fling.* *Singing* and *fling* do not rime.

645. In *single rimes*, one syllable rimes with another; as, *hand* and *band.* In *double rimes*, two syllables rime with two other syllables; as, *crying* and *trying.* In *triple rimes*, three syllables rime with three other syllables. In *double* and *triple* rimes, the first riming syllables must conform to the rules for single rimes; the other syllables should be identical in sound.

646. Riming syllables usually occur at the ends of lines; the last syllable of a line may, however, be made to rime with one in the middle of the line; as,

Ho, trumpets, sound a war-note!
Ho, lictors, clear the *way!*
The knights will *ride*, in all their *pride*,
Along the streets to-*day.*—*Macaulay.*

647. Lines whose final syllables rime should have the same *indentation;* that is, should be commenced, in writing or printing, at an equal distance from the margin. Thus:

Ring out the old, ring in the new,
Ring, happy bells, across the snow:
The year is going, let him go;
Ring out the false, ring in the true.—*Tennyson.*

648. A **couplet** is composed of two consecutive lines, the final syllables of which rime. A **triplet** is composed of three such lines.

649. In **blank verse** there is rhythm, but not rime; as,

Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought Death into the world, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
Sing, heav'nly Muse.

650. A **stanza** is a regularly recurring group of lines. For examples of stanzas, see Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" and "Village Blacksmith."

651. To **scan** a line is to mark the feet and tell what kind they are.

Kinds of Feet.

652. Feet (see § **641**) are divided into dissyllabic and trisyllabic.

653. The dissyllabic feet are the **iambus** and the **trochee.**

In classical poetry a third dissyllabic foot, called the **spondee,** consisting of two long syllables, is used.

654. An **iambus** is a dissyllabic foot accented on the second syllable; as, *adore.*

Some prefer to use the technical terms of classical poetry and to speak of an unaccented syllable as *short* [marked thus (⏑)], and of an accented syllable as *long* [marked thus (–)].

655. A **trochee** is a dissyllabic foot accented on the first syllable; as, *rosy* (– ⏑).

The word comes from the Greek *trochos.* a running, and is so called from the tripping, sprightly movement it imparts to the verse.

656. The trisyllabic feet are the **anapest**, the **dactyl**, and the **amphibrach**.

657. The **anapest** is a trisyllabic foot, accented on the third syllable; as, *intercede* (⏑ ⏑ –).

The anapest (*ana* = back, and *paistos* = struck) is so called because it is the reverse of the dactyl.

658. The **dactyl** is a trisyllabic foot accented on the first syllable; as, *holiness* (– ⏑ ⏑).

The dactyl (Greek *daktylos*, a finger) is so called, because, like a finger, it has one long joint and two short joints.

659. The **amphibrach** is a trisyllabic foot, having the accent on the middle syllable; as, *coeval* (⏑ – ⏑).

The amphibrach (*amphi* = on both sides, and *brachys* = short) is so called because there is an unaccented syllable on each side of an accented syllable.

660. Verses are classified according to the kind of foot, and the number of feet occurring in each line. According to the kind of foot, verse may be *iambic*, *trochaic*, *anapestic*, *dactylic*, or *amphibrachic*. According to the number of feet a verse is *monometer*, if of one foot; *dimeter*, if of two feet; *trimeter*, if of three feet; *tetrameter*, if of four feet; *pentameter*, if of five feet; and *hexameter*, if of six feet.

661. If a verse has a syllable more than the regular measure, it is called *hypermeter*; if a syllable less, *catalectic*.

Dissyllabic Verse.

Iambic Measures.

662. In *iambic* measures the accents generally fall on the even syllables, the second, fourth, etc.

(a) Lines in Iambic Monometer are rarely found.

(b) Iambic Dimeter.

With ráv | ished éars
The món | arch héars.—*Dryden.*

(c) Iambic Trimeter.

Alóft | in aẃ | ful státe
The gód | like hé | ro sát.—*Dryden.*

IAMBIC TRIMETER HYPERMETER.

In ró | ses Cú | pid peép | ing
Distúrbed | a beé | a sleép | ing.

(d) IAMBIC TETRAMETER.

A pér | fect wó | man, nó | bly plánned
To wárn, | to cóm | fort, ánd | commánd;
And yet a spirit still and bright
With something of an angel light.—*Wordsworth.*

This is the measure in which most of Sir Walter Scott's longer poems are written. He often varies it by introducing triplets, and dimeters or trimeters.

(e) IAMBIC PENTAMETER.

Achíl | les' wráth, | to Greéce | the díre | ful spríng
Of woes | unnúm | bered, heáv'n | ly gód | dess, síng.—*Pope.*

This is what is generally called Heroic Measure. Unrimed iambic pentameters constitute the most common form of blank verse. Milton's "Paradise Lost" and most of Shakespeare's plays are written in *pentameter blank verse*, though many of the lines are either *hypermeter* or *catalectic*.

The *elegiac stanza* is a variety of this measure. It consists of four heroic lines, riming alternately; as,

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.—*Gray.*

The *Spenserian Stanza*, in which Spenser's "The Faerie Queene" and Byron's "Childe Harold" are written, consists of eight heroic lines, followed by an *Alexandrine*. The riming lines are the first and third; the second, fourth, fifth, and seventh; and the sixth, eighth, and ninth.

(f) IAMBIC HEXAMETER.

A needless Alexandrine ends the song,
Which líke, | a woúnd | ed snáke | drags íts | slow léngth | alóng.—*Pope.*

This measure is what is called *Alexandrine*.

(g) IAMBIC HEPTAMETER.

Now glór | ry tó | the Lórd | of hosts, | from whóm | all glór | ries aré!
And glory to our Sovereign Liege, King Henry of Navarre!—*Macaulay.*

This measure is often called *Service*, *Ballad*, or *Common Meter*. It is very generally used for hymns and ballads, and is often written in lines of four and three feet alternately, the latter being the only ones that rime; as,

With slow and steady step there came
A lady through the hall,
And breathless silence chained the lips
And touched the hearts of all.—*H. G. Bell.*

Trochaic Measures.

663. In *trochaic* measures the accents usually fall on the odd syllables; as, the first, third, etc.

(a) Trochaic Dimeter.

Rich the | tréasure,
Swéet the | pléasure.—*Dryden.*

(b) Trochaic Trimeter.

Whén a | roúnd thee | ly'ing,
Aútumn | leáves are | dy'ing.

Trochaic Trimeter Hypermeter.

Cóme, and | tríp it, | ás you | go,
On the | líght fan | tás tic | toe.—*Milton.*

This is the most commonly used trochaic measure.

(c) Trochaic Tetrameter.

Wíth a | fúll but | sóft e | mótion,
Líke the | swéll of | súmmer's | ócean.—*Byron.*

(d) Trochaic Pentameter.

Lów vo | lúptuous | músic | wínding | trémbled.—*Tennyson.*

(e) Trochaic Hexameter.

Holy! Holy! Holy! all the saints adore Thee.—*Heber.*

(f) Trochaic Heptameter.

Leaflets on the hollow oak still as greenly quiver.—*Lytton.*

Trisyllabic Verse.

Anapestic Measures.

664. In anapestic measures the accent, as a rule, falls on every third syllable.

(a) Anapestic Monometer.

As ye sweép
Through the deép.—*Campbell.*

(b) Anapestic Dimeter.

In my rágе | shall be seén
The revénge | of a queén.—*Addison.*

(c) Anapestic Trimeter.

I am món | arch of áll | I survéy.—*Cowper.*

(d) Anapestic Tetrameter.

'Tis the voíce | of the slúg | gard, I héard | him compláin.

In anapestic measures, lines are frequently hypermetrical, and an iambus is sometimes substituted for an anapest, as in the following:

'Tis the lást | rose of súm | mer
Left bloóm | ing a lóne;
All her lóve | ly compán | ions
Are fá | ded and góne.—*Moore.*

Dactylic Measures.

665. In dactylic measures the accent, as a rule, falls upon the first, fourth, seventh, and tenth syllables.

(a) Dactylic Monometer.

Mérrily,
Cheérily.

(b) Dactylic Dimeter.

Toúch her not | scórnfully.
Thínk of her | moúrnfully.—*Hood.*

(c) Dactylic Trimeter Hypermeter.

Mérrily, | mérrily, | shâll I live | now
Under the | blóssom that | hángs on the | bough.—*Shakespeare.*

(d) Dactylic Hexameter.

This measure, which is borrowed from Greek and Latin poetry, is used by Longfellow in "Evangeline" and "Miles Standish." It consists of six feet. The last foot is either a spondee or a trochee; and the foot preceding the last is invariably a dactyl. The other four feet are generally dactyls, though a trochee is occasionally introduced; as,

Yé who be | lieve in af | féction that | hópes, and en | dúres and is | patient.
Yé who be | liéve in the | béauty and | stréngth of | wóman's de | votion.

Another way of scanning dactylic lines, is to read the first two syllables as a trochee, and to consider the remainder of the line amphibrachic.

Amphibrachic Measures.

666. In amphibrachic measures the accent, as a rule, falls upon the second, fifth, eighth, and eleventh syllables.

Amphibrachic Tetrameter.

There cáme to | the beách a | poor éxile | of Erin,
The déw on | his thín robe | was heávy | and chíll—*Campbell.*

Another way of scanning this measure is to read the first two syllables as an iambus, and to consider the remainder of the line anapestic.

Mixed Meter.

667. Poets frequently vary the structure of their verse by introducing a variety of feet, as in the following:

Thére be | nóne of | Beáuty's | dáughters
With a má | gic like thée:
And like | músic | ón the | wáters
Is thý | sweet voíce | to mé.

With regard to some poems, such as Coleridge's "Christobel" and Byron's "Siege of Corinth," we can say only that there is a uniform number of accents in each line.

Alliteration.

668. **Alliteration** consists in the repetition of a letter at the beginning of two or more words in close proximity. The effect, when skillfully managed, is pleasing to the ear; as,

Our *s*incerest laughter
With *s*ome pain is fraught;
Our *s*weetest *s*ongs are those that tell of *s*addest thought.

Shakespeare burlesques its excessive use in the lines:

Whereat, with *b*lade, with *b*loody *b*lameful *b*lade,
He *b*ravely *b*roached his *b*oiling *b*loody *b*reast.

Exercise 103.—*Select a poem for examination and determine the following:*

1. The number of lines in a stanza, if the poem is written in stanzas.
2. Where rimes occur and, consequently, what lines should be indented.
3. The number of accented syllables in each line and the number of unaccented syllables before or after each accented syllable.
4. From the data thus secured determine the name of the meter, and be prepared to point out lines that are hypermeter or catalectic and any variations from the prevailing foot.

CHAPTER VIII.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

669. Languages are arranged in families according to resemblances in words and in the grammatical forms used to combine words into sentences.

670. The English language belongs to the most important of these families, called the **Indo-European**, because it comprises the most important languages that are or have been spoken from India to the western coast of Europe. It is also called the Aryan, from an ancient Asiatic race of that name.

The Indo-European family has two great divisions: *a*. Asiatic; *b*. European. Under each of these divisions are several distinct groups of languages.

a. Asiatic Division.

1. The *Indian* languages, including the Sanskrit (a language now no longer spoken), the modern Indian dialects of Hindostan, and the Gypsy dialect.

2. The *Persian* languages, including the Zend (the ancient language of Persia), and modern Persian.

b. European Division.

1. The *Hellenic* languages, including the various dialects of ancient Greek, and the various dialects of modern Greek.

2. The *Latin* languages, including ancient Latin and the several *Romance* languages to which the Latin has given rise: (*a*) Italian; (*b*) French; (*c*) Spanish; (*d*) Portuguese; (*e*) Roumanch or Romanese, spoken in southern Switzerland; (*f*) Wallachian, spoken in Wallachia and Moldavia.

3. The *Teutonic* languages, comprising: (*a*) The Low German dialects, spoken originally by the tribes living on the northern shores and lowlands of Germany—now represented by Frisian, Dutch, Flemish, and English. (*b*) High German, formerly the language of the south-east of Germany, Bavaria, and Austria, now the literary dialect of Germany. (*c*) Scandinavian, including Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish.

4. The *Celtic* languages, divided into: (*a*) the *Cymric* branch, including Welsh, Cornish, and Armorican of Brittany; (*b*) the *Gaelic* branch, comprising the Irish or Erse, the Scottish Gaelic, and the Manx of the Isle of Man.

5. *Sclavonic*, including Russian, Lettish, Lithuanian, Polish, etc.

The English language, then, is a member of the Indo-European family; it belongs to the Teutonic group, and it is a Low German dialect. It was brought to America from England. It was brought to England, where it developed into its present form, from northern Germany about the middle of the fifth century after Christ. Up to that time, the country now called England had been known as Britannia or Britain.

671. The chief historical events that should be borne in mind in tracing the development of the English language are the following:

The island of Britain was originally peopled by a Celtic race who spoke a Celtic language.

Britain was invaded by a Roman army under Julius Cæsar in 55 B.C. It was afterward conquered by Rome in A.D. 43, and it was held as a Roman province until A.D. 426.

On the retirement of the Romans, the country was invaded by three Low-German tribes—Jutes, Saxons, and Angles. These Teutonic invaders took complete possession of the country, driving the native population, except a few who were kept as slaves, to Cornwall, Wales, and Strathclyde, a region bordering the Solway Firth. The Jutes settled in Kent; the Saxons, in the southern part of the island; and the Angles, in the center and north of England and the southern half of Scotland. From the Angles, who were the most numerous, the country was called Angle- or Engla-land or England, "the land of the Angles." Toward the close of the ninth century the various Teutonic tribes became united politically under a single king. They spoke several Low German dialects, which are now included under the general term Anglo-Saxon.

About the year 596 the English were converted to Christianity by missionaries from Rome.

Toward the end of the eighth century the Northmen of Scandinavia (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden), generally called Danes, ravaged the east coast of England. In the ninth century they gained possession of a large part of the east coast, and in the eleventh century Danish sovereigns sat on the throne of England for nearly thirty years.

In 1066 the Normans—Northmen who had settled in France and who had acquired the French language—under Duke William, invaded England. The English army under King Harold was defeated at Hastings. William became king and made his followers the nobles, the bishops, and the land lords of the country. French became the language of the law courts, the churches, and the schools, and was generally spoken by the Normans, while the Teutonic folk, though they no longer, except in rare cases, owned the land, stubbornly asserted their rights and clung tenaciously to their own language.

Gradually, the conquering Normans and the conquered Saxons coalesced and became one people. After a struggle of 300 years the English language won at last and became the language of the country. In 1349 boys at school began to translate their Latin into English instead of into French. In 1362 English was made the language of the courts of law.

672. The language brought by the Angles, Saxons, etc., was an *unmixed* language; that is, it contained few or no words that were not Low German.

673. English is now a *mixed* or *composite* language, because, while the framework is English, it has absorbed many thousands of foreign words.

The following are the principal foreign elements in English:

I. *The Celtic Element.*—A few Celtic words that have come down to us from the early inhabitants of Britain, or through the Norman French, are still retained; as, *breeches*, *basket*, *clout*, *crock*, *cradle*, *kiln*, *mattock*, *mop*, *pot*.

II. *The Scandinavian Element.*—The Danes, or Northmen, spoke a language very much akin to the Anglo-Saxon. Hence it is difficult to distinguish words of purely Danish origin. Names of places ending in *by* (town), *fell* (hill), *beck* (stream), *shaw* (wood), *garth* (inclosure), are of Danish origin.

III. *The Latin Element.*—By far the largest foreign element in English is the Latin. Words derived from the Latin were introduced at four distinct periods.

1. *Latin of the First Period.*—The Roman occupation of Britain gave us a few names of places, as *Chester*, *Gloucester*, *Dorchester*, from *castra*, a camp, because the Romans had fortified towns at these places; *Lincoln*, from *colonia*, a colony; and *Portsmouth*, from *portus*, a harbor. The Latin *strata* became *street*, the Romans being great roadmakers.

2. *Latin of the Second Period.*—The introduction of Christianity brought many terms connected with the Church and its services, as *chalice* (calix), *cloister* (claustrum), *deacon* (diaconus), *clerk* (clericus), etc.

3. *Latin of the Third Period.*—The Norman conquerors spoke the French language. As the French is derived from the Latin, several thousands of Latin words were introduced through this medium. They were religious, philosophical, and poetic terms, used by English writers who translated religious books, poems, and romances from French into English; law terms, words pertaining to the chase, to war, and to chivalry.

4. *Latin of the Fourth Period.*—About the beginning of the sixteenth century occurred what is called the revival of learning. More profound study than ever before was given to the literatures of ancient Greece and Rome. From this time down to the present many words have been taken directly from the Latin.

IV *The Greek Element.*—Philosophical and scientific words are generally

derived from the Greek, though the Greek element is only about one-eighth as large as the Latin; as, *logic*, *physics*, *philosophy*, *astronomy*, *geography*, *problem*, *diagram*.

V. *Words of Miscellaneous Origin.*—Through commercial and social intercourse with every part of the known world, the English vocabulary has been enriched with words relating to natural productions, works of art, or social institutions. Thus the word *taboo* comes from the Sandwich Islands; the word *tea* is Chinese; and *algebra*, *almanac*, and *alcohol* are Arabic.

674. There are about 100,000 words in the English language. Words of classical origin are about twice as numerous as pure English words; but, as the English words are much more frequently used than the classical, the English element greatly preponderates not only in our talk but in the pages of our great writers. Words from all sources other than English, Latin, and Greek, do not exceed one-twentieth of the entire vocabulary.

675. The following classes of words are of English, or Low German, origin:

1. Demonstrative adjectives; pronouns; numerals.
2. Auxiliary and defective verbs.
3. Prepositions and conjunctions.
4. Nouns forming their plurals by change of vowel.
5. Verbs forming their past tense by change of vowel.
6. Adjectives forming their degrees of comparison irregularly.
7. Most words of one syllable and many of two syllables.
8. Words relating to common natural objects, to home life, to agriculture, to the simpler feelings of the mind, and to common trades and processes.

On the other hand, most words of three or more syllables, and many words of two syllables, words relating to religion, law, government, and war, to the higher processes of the mind, to art, science, and philosophy, are of Latin origin.

In the following passage from Washington Irving's "Westminster Abbey," the words of foreign origin are printed in italics:

"It was the *tomb* of a *crusader;* of one of those *military enthusiasts*, who so *strangely* mingled *religion* and *romance*, and whose *exploits form* the *connect-*

ing link between *fact* and *fiction*, between the *history* and the *fairy* tale. There is something *extremely picturesque* in the *tombs* of these *adventurers*, *decorated* as they are with *rude armorial* bearings and Gothic *sculpture*."

676. In many cases we find an English and a Romance word used to express the same thing with slightly different shades of meaning; as, *feeling*, *sentiment*; *work*, *labor*; *bloom*, *flower*. In this way, many so-called synonyms have been developed.

677. The significant parts of Latin and Greek words, that have been introduced into the English language, are called STEMS.

678. Each stem, by the addition of prefixes and suffixes (see Chapter on Word Formation), may give rise to many words, often several hundred. The following list* of stems should be carefully studied:

AG, ACT=do, drive, act; as *ag*ent, counter*act*.
ALT=high; as *alt*itude, *alt*ar.
ANIM=mind; as un*anim*ous, *anim*osity.
ANN=year; as *ann*als, bi*enn*ial.
APT=fit, join; as ad*apt*.
BAS=low; as de*bas*e.
BREV=short; as ab*brev*iate.
CAD, CAS=fall; as *cad*ence, *cas*ual, acci*d*ent.
CAP, CAPT=take, hold; as *cap*able, *capt*ive.
CARN=flesh; as *carn*ivorous (vor=devour).
CED, CESS=go, yield; as acce*d*e, ac*cess*.
CENT=hundred; as *cent*ury.
CING, CINCT=bind; as sur*cingle*, *cinct*ure, suc*cinct*.
CLIN=lean, bend; as de*cline*.
COR, CORD=heart; as ac*cord*.
CUR=care; as *accur*ate.
CURR, CURS=run; as *curr*ent, *curs*ory.
DICT=speak, say; as contra*dict*.
DIGN=worthy; as *dign*ity, dis*dain*.
DUC, DUCT=lead, bring; as in*duce*, con*duct*.
EQU=equal; as *equ*animity (anim=mind).
FA=speak; as af*fa*ble.
FAC, FACT=make, form, do; as *fac*ile, *fact*ion.
FERR=carry, bear, bring; as *fer*tile, con*fer*.
FID=faith, trust; as con*fide*.
FIN=end, limit; as *fin*al.
FRANG, FRACT=break; as *frag*ile, *frac*tion.
FUND, FUS=pour, melt; as *fus*ible, con*found*.
GEN, GENER=kind, race; as *gener*al, *gen*der.
GRAD, GRESS=step, go; as *grad*ual, di*gress*.
GRAPH=write; as auto*graph*.

* This list includes the stems prescribed by the Regents of the University of New York in their course in "Elementary English."

GRAT=pleasing; as *grat*eful.
HOSPIT=host, guest; as *hospit*able.
JECT=cast; as in*ject*.
JUNCT=join; as con*junct*ion.
JUR=swear; as ad*jure*.
JUR=law, right; as *jur*ist.
LAT=carry, bring; as di*lat*e.
LEG=send, bring; as *leg*acy, al*lege*.
LEG, LECT=gather, choose; as *leg*ion, e*clect*ic.
LIBER=free; as *liber*ty.
LIN=flax; as *lin*en, *lin*ing.
LITER=letter; as *liter*al, *liter*ary.
LOC=place; as *loc*al, dis*loc*ate.
LOG=word, speech, reason; as cata*log*ue, *log*ic.
LOQU, LOCUT=speak, talk; as *loqu*acious, circum*locut*ion.
LUD, LUS=sport, play; as *lud*icrous, il*lus*ion.
MAGN=great; as *magn*itude.
MAN=hand; as *man*ual, *main*tain.
MAR=the sea; as *mar*ine.
MATER, MATR=mother; as *mater*nal, *matr*imony.
MEDI=middle, between; as *medi*ate.
MENT=mind; as *ment*al.
MERC=merchandise, trade; as com*merce*.
MERG=dip, sink; as sub*merge*.
METER, METR=measure; as chrono*meter*, sym*metry*.
MIGR=wander; as *migr*ate.
MIR=wonder, look; as ad*mire*, *mirr*or.
MITT, MISS=send; as ad*mit*, com*miss*ion.
MON, MONIT=advise, remind; as *mon*ument, *monit*or.
MORT=death; as *mort*al.
MOT=move; as *mot*or.
MULT=many; as *mult*itude.
MUN, MUNIT=fortify; as *munit*ion.
NAT=born; as *nat*al.
NAV=ship; as *nav*al.
NOT=known; as *not*ice.
NUMER=number; as *numer*ous.
NUNCI, NOUNCE=tell; as e*nunci*ate, an*nounce*.
OCUL=eye; as *ocul*ist.
PAR=get ready; as com*pare*.
PARL=speak; as *parl*ey.
PARS, PART=part; as *pars*e, a*part*.
PAST=feed; as *past*ure.
PAT, PASS=suffer, feel; as *pat*ient, *pass*ive.
PATER, PATR=father; as *pater*nal, *patr*ician.
PED=foot; as bi*ped*.
PELL, PULS=drive; as com*pel*, ex*puls*ion.
PEND, PENS=hang, weigh, pay; as *pend*ant, *pens*ion.
PET, PETIT=seek; as im*pet*us, *petit*ion.
PHIL, PHILO=fond; as *phil*osophy (soph=wisdom).
PLE, PLET=fill; as com*ple*ment, com*plete*.
PLIC=fold, bend; as com*plic*ate.
PON=to place, put; as com*pon*ent.
PORT=carry, bring; as *port*er.
PORT=gate; as *port*al.
POS=to place, put; as com*pose*.
PRIM=first; as *prim*ary.
SACR=holy; as *sacr*ed.
SCI=know; as *sci*ence.
SCRIB, SCRIPT=write; as de*scrib*e, sub*script*ion.
SENT, SENS=feel, think; as *sent*iment, *sens*ible.
SEQU, SECUT=follow; as *sequ*el, con*secut*ive.
SOL=alone; as *sol*itude.
SPEC, SPECT=look, appear; as *spec*imen, pro*spect*.
SPIR=breathe; as a*spire*.
STRU, STRUCT=build; as con*stru*e, con*struct*.
SUM, SUMPT=take; as as*sume*, pre*sumpt*ion.
TACT=touch; as con*tact*.
UN=one; as *un*animous (anim=mind).
UT, UTIL=use, useful; as *ut*ensil, *util*ize.
VID, VIS=see, appear; as *evid*ent, *visi*ble.
VIV=live; as *viv*acity.
VOC=call; as *voc*ation.

EXERCISE 104.—*Find composite words, in addition to those given, in which the stems enumerated above are embodied.*

Classify and analyze the composite words in accordance with the models presented on pp. 220, 221.

679. The following list* of stems will afford additional material for similar exercises:

APER, APERT=open; as *aper*ient, *apert*ure
ARCH=rule, govern; as an*arch*y.
ART=skill; as *art*.
AUD=hear, listen; as *aud*ible.
AUR=gold; as *aur*iferous (ferr=carry).
BAT=beat; as *bat*tle.
BIT=bite; as *bit*e, *bit*ter.
CANT=sing; as *cant*icle, *chant*.
CAPIT=head; as *capit*al.
CELER=swift; as *celer*ity.
COMMOD=suitable; as *commod*ious.
COMMUN=common; as *commun*ity.
CORON=crown; as *coron*ation.
CORPUS, CORPOR=body; as *corpus*cle, *corpor*eal.
CRED=believe; as *cred*ible.
CYCL=circle; as bi*cycl*e.
DAT=give; as *dat*e, ed*it*ion.
DENT=tooth; as *dent*ist.
DI=day; as *di*al.
DOMIN=lord, master; as *domin*ate.
DORM=sleep; as *dorm*ant.
FAC=face, form; as ef*fac*e.
FELIC=happy; as *felic*ity.
FESS=acknowledge; as con*fess*.
FORM=shape; as con*form*.
FORT=strong; as *fort*itude.
GEST=carry, bring; as con*gest*ion.
GRAN=grain; as *gran*ary.
GROSS=fat, thick; as *gross*.
HOR=hour; as *hor*ologue.
INTEGR=entire, whole; as *integr*al.
JUDIC=judge; as *judic*iary.
LINGU=tongue; as *lingu*ist.
MAJOR=greater; as *major*ity.
MAN, MANS=stay, dwell; as *man*or, *mans*ion.
MEDIC=physician; as *medic*ine.
MENS=measure; as *mens*uration.
PAN=bread; as *pan*try.
PAR=equal; as dis*parity*.
PASS=step; as com*pass*.
PEN=pain, punishment; as *pen*al.
PETR=stone, rock; as *petr*ify.
PHON=sound; as *phon*ic.
PHYSI=nature; as *physi*ology (log=word, reason).
PICT=paint; as *pict*ure.
PLAC=please; as *plac*able.
PLEN=full; as *plen*ty.
PLUM=feather; as *plum*age.
PLUMB=lead; as *plumb*er.
POT=drink; as *pot*ion.
POTENT=powerful; as *potent*ate.
PREHEND, PREHENS=take, grasp; as ap*prehend*, *prehens*ile.
PUNCT=prick, point; as *punct*ure.
QUADR=square, fourfold; as *quadr*ant.
QUANT=how much; as *quant*ity.
QUER, QUISIT=seek, ask; as *quer*y, in*quisit*ion.
QUIET=quiet; as re*quiem*.
RADI=ray; as *radi*ant.
RAP, RAPT=seize, grasp; as *rap*acious, *rapt*ure.
RAT=think, calculate; as *rat*io.
RECT=ruled, straight, right; as *rect*angle.

* This list includes all the stems prescribed by the Regents of the University of the State of New York in their course in "Advanced English."

REG=rule, govern; as *reg*ent.
RID, RIS=laugh; as *rid*iculous, *ris*ible.
RIV=stream; as *riv*er, de*riv*e.
ROG, ROGAT=ask; as inter*rog*ate
RUPT=break; as *rupt*ure.
SAL=salt; as *sal*ine.
SAL=leap; as *sal*ient.
SANCT=holy; as *sanct*ion.
SAT, SATIS=enough; as *sat*e, *satis*fy.
SCOP=watch, view; as epi*scop*al.
SEC, SECT=cut; as *sec*ant, bi*sect*.
SEN=old; as *sen*ior.
SERV=keep; as con*serv*e.
SIST=to place, stand; as as*sist*.
SON=sound; as con*son*ant.
SORT=lot, kind; as as*sort*.
SPECI=kind; as *speci*es.
STANT=standing; as con*stant*.
STELL=star; con*stell*ation.
STRING, STRIC.=draw tight, bind; as *string*ent.
SU=follow; as pur*su*e.
SUAD, SUAS=persuade; as dis*suad*e, per*suas*ion.
SURG, SURRECT=rise; as in*surg*ent, in*surrect*ion.
TAILL=cut; as *tail*or.
TANG=touch; as *tang*ent.
TEG, TECT=cover; as *teg*ument, de*tect*.
TEMPOR=time; as *tempor*ary.
TEND, TENT=stretch, reach; con*tend*, con*tent*.
TEST=witness; as at*test*.
TORT=twist, wring; as con*tort*.
TRACT=draw; as at*tract*.
TRIT=rub; as at*trit*ion.
TRUD, TRUS=thrust; as in*trud*e, ab*strus*e.
UND=wave, flow; as in*und*ate.
VAD, VAS=go; as e*vad*e
VAL=be strong; as *val*id.
VEN, VENT=come; as con*ven*e, con*vent*ion.
VERT, VERS=turn; as per*vert*, *vers*ion.
VI, VIA=way, road; as *via*duct (duct=lead, bring), de*vi*ous.
VIC=a change, turn; as *vic*ar.
VOLV, VOLU, VOLUT=roll; as circum*volv*e, *volu*ble, re*volut*ion.
VOT=vow; as *vot*ive.

680. Besides the introduction of foreign words, the English language has undergone another great change since the days of pure Anglo-Saxon, namely, in its grammar.

The Anglo-Saxon was a highly inflected language. "Nouns had five cases, and there were different declensions (as in Latin); adjectives were declined, and had three genders; pronouns had more forms, and some had a dual number as well as a singular and plural; the verbs had more variety in their personal terminations." All that remains of grammatical inflection in English is of Anglo-Saxon origin; but most of the Anglo-Saxon inflections have been dropped, and their places have been supplied by prepositions and auxiliary verbs. This change had commenced even before the Norman Conquest, particularly in those parts of the country affected by Danish incursions, but it

was accelerated by the presence of the Norman-French, possibly because the Saxons and Normans had enough to do in learning the two vocabularies without acquiring a cumbrous system of inflections.

Professor Lounsbury divides the historical development of the English language into four periods:

I.—The *Anglo-Saxon* period, from the first coming of Saxons and Angles to the year 1150.

Toward the end of this period inflections began to drop off.

II.—The *Early English* period, from 1150 to 1350; sometimes subdivided into semi-Saxon from 1150 to 1250, and Old English from 1250 to 1350.

During this period the language was steadily losing inflections and incorporating French words.

Toward the end of this period three dialects of equal rank were marked:

1. The *Northern* dialect, spoken from the Humber to the Firth of Forth. This developed into Lowland Scotch.

2. The *Southern* dialect, spoken south of the Thames.

3. The *Midland* dialect, spoken in the intervening districts.

III.—*Middle English*, from 1350 to 1550.

During this period inflections were reduced almost to their present number; foreign words were freely introduced from the Italian as well as from the Latin and the French; and the *Midland* dialect, because Chaucer, the first great English poet, wrote in it, became the literary language of England.

IV.—*Modern English*, from 1550 to the present time.

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